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The Gift of
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Hartford, Conn.,
27 Dec., 1858.

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NATIONAL

EDUCATION IN EUROPE;

BEING AN ACCOUNT

OF THE

ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION, INSTRUCTION, AND STATISTICS

OF

PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF DIFFERENT GRADES

IN

THE PRINCIPAL STATES.

BY HENRY BARNARD, LL. D.,
SUPERINTENDENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS IN CONNECTICUT.

SECOND EDITION.

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PREFACE.

The following pages were, in part, published in 1851 under the title of "Normal Schools and other Institutions, Agencies and Means designed for the Professional Education of Teachers." They were prepared from observations made during a tour in Europe in 1835–6, and from documents subsequently collected, from time to time, to assist the undersigned in maturing his own views and plans for the improvement of common schools, and particularly in devising modes of operating beneficially for the advancement of the teachers' profession, in the States of Rhode Island and Connecticut.

The author has availed himself of a recent visit to Europe, to extend his inquiries, and collect additional documents, not only respecting the training of teachers, but in every departpartment of the educational field, and particularly respecting agricultural schools, and institutions for juvenile delinquents. The results are embodied in this new edition of his original work, the title of which is changed, so as to convey a more adequate idea of its contents.

To the results of his own observations and study of documents, he is able, by permission of the gentlemen named, to add freely from the elaborate and valuable reports of Prof. Calvin E. Stowe, D. D., to the Legislature of Ohio, in 1837, of President Alexander Dallas Bache, LL.D., to the Trustees of the Girard College of Orphans in Philadelphia, in 1839, of Hon. Horace Mann, LL. D., to the Massachusetts Board of Education in 1846, and of Joseph Kay, Esq., Traveling Bachelor of the University of Oxford, in 1850, on the subjects treated of in this volume. Without claiming any thing for his own labors, the undersigned feels authorized in saying that the present edition contains more reliable statistics and fuller information respecting the whole subject of public education in Europe, than can be found in any one volume in the English language, or in any number of volumes easily accessible to any large number of American teachers and educators.

It embodies information which can be made available in organizing new, and improving existing systems of public instruction, and particularly institutions and agencies, designed for the education of teachers in every state of the Union. Its value does not consist in conveying the speculations and limited experience of the author, but the matured views and varied experience of wise statesmen, educators, and teachers, in perfecting the organization and administration of educational systems and institutions, through a succession of years, under the most diverse circumstances of government, society, and religion.

The experience and views of the undersigned, as to the organization and administration of a system of public education adapted to the peculiar circumstances and wants of our own country, will be presented to the public in the course of another year, under the title of "*National Education; or, Contributions to the History and Improvement of Common Schools, and other means of Popular Education in the United States.*"

HENRY BARNARD

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GERMANY.

To Germany,[*] as a whole, as one people, and not to any particular state of Germany, as now recognized on the map of Europe, belongs the credit of first thoroughly organizing a system of public education under the administration of the civil power. Here, too, education first assumed the form and name of a science, and the art of teaching and training children was first taught systematically in seminaries established for this special purpose.

But not to Germany, or to any one people or any civil authority any where, but to the Christian Church, belongs the higher credit of first instituting the public school, or rather the parochial school, for the elementary education of the poor, which was the earliest form which this mighty element of modern society assumed. After the third century of the Christian era, whenever a Christian church was planted, or religious institutions established, there it was the aim of the higher ecclesiastical authorities to found, in some form, a school for the nurture of children and youth for the service of religion and duties of society. Passing by the ecclesiastical and catechetical schools, we find, as early as 529, the council of Vaison strongly recommending the establishment of village schools. In 800 a synod at Mayence ordered that the parochial priests should have schools in the towns and villages, that the little children of all the faithful might learn letters from them; "let them receive and teach these with the utmost charity, that they themselves may shine as the stars for ever. Let them receive no remuneration from their scholars, unless what the parents through charity may voluntarily offer." A council at Rome, in 836, under Eugene II., ordained that there should be three kinds of schools established throughout Christendom; episcopal, parochial in towns and villages, and others wherever there could be found place and opportunity. In 836, Lothaire I. promulgated a decree to establish eight public schools in some of the principal cities of Italy, "in order that opportunity may be given to all, and that there may be no excuse drawn from poverty and the difficulty of repairing to remote places." The third council of Lateran, in 1179, says: "Since the Church of God, as a pious mother, is bound to provide that opportunity for learning should not be withdrawn from the poor, who are without help from patrimonial riches, be it ordained, that in every cathedral there should be a master to teach both clerks and poor scholars gratis." This decree was enlarged and again enforced by Innocent III. in the year 1215. Hence, in all colleges of canons, one bore the title of the scholastic canon. The council of Lyons, in 1215, decreed "that in all cathedral churches, and others provided with adequate revenues, there should be established a school and a teacher by the bishop and chapter, who should teach the clerks and other poor scholars gratis in grammar, and for this purpose a stipend should be assigned him."*

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[*] Mr. W. E. Hickson, in his valuable pamphlet, entitled "*Dutch and German Schools*," published in London in 1840, well says:

"We must bear in mind that the German states, although under different governments, are not nations as distinct from, and independent of each other, as France and Spain, or as Russia and Great Britain. Each of the German states is influenced more or less by every other; the whole lying in close juxta-position, and being linked together by the bond of a common language and literature. The boundary line that separates Prussia from Hesse on one side, or from Saxony on another, is not more defined than that of a county or parish in England. A stone in a field, or a post painted with stripes, in a public road, informs the traveler that he is passing from one state into another, that these territorial divisions make no change in the great characteristics of the people: whatever the name of the state, or the color of the stripes, the people, with merely provincial differences, are the same: from the Baltic to the Adriatic, they are still Germans. The national spirit may always be gathered from the national songs, and in Germany the most popular are those which speak of all Germans as brothers, and all German states as belonging to one common country, as may be gathered from the following passage of a song of M. Arndt:—

"What country does a German claim?
His Fatherland; know'st thou its name?
Is it Bavaria,—Saxony?
An inland state, or on the sea?
There, on the Baltic's plains of sand?
Or mid the Alps of Switzerland?
Austria, the Adriatic shores?
Or where the Prussian eagle soars?
Or where hills covered by the vine,
Adorn the landscape of the Rhine?
Oh no, oh no, not there, alone,
The land, with pride, we call our own,
Not there. A German's heart or mind
Is to no narrow realm confined.
Where'er he hears his native tongue,
When hymns of praise to God are sung,
There is his Fatherland, and he
Has but one country—Germany!"

Such was the origin of the popular school, as now generally understood—every where the offspring, and companion of the Church; sharing with her, in large measure, the imperfections which attach to all new institutions and all human instrumentalities; encountering peculiar difficulties from the barbarism of the age and people through which it passed, and which it was its mission to enlighten; and every where crippled by insufficient endowments, unqualified teachers, and the absence of all text books, and necessary aids to instruction and illustration. The discovery of the art of printing, in 1440, and the consequent multiplication of books at prices which brought them more within reach of the great mass of the people; the study and use of the vernacular language by scholars and divines, and particularly its employment in the printing of the Bible, hymns, popular songs, school books, and in religious instruction generally; the recognition by the municipal authorities of cities, and at a later period by the higher civil power, of the right, duty and interest of the state, in connection with, or independent of the church, to provide liberally and efficiently for the education of all children and youth; and above all, the intense activity given to the human mind by the religious movement of Luther, in the early part of the sixteenth century; the assertion of the right of private judgment in the interpretation of the scriptures; the breaking up of existing ecclesiastical foundations, and the diversion of funds from religious to educational purposes,—all these causes, combined with the general progress of society, co-operated to introduce an advantageous change in the organization, administration, instruction and discipline ot the popular school. But the progress actually made from year to year, and century even to century, was slow, and after three hundred years of effort, there is much yet to be done even in those states and communities which have accomplished the most toward improving the outward organization and instrumentalities of the schools, and above all its internal life in the improved qualification and position of the teachers—for as is the teacher, so is the school. A brief reference to a few of the more prominent names in the history of popular education in Germany, and through Germany, of Modern Europe, is all that can be attempted at this time and in this connection. Among these names stands prominent that of Martin Luther.

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* Digby's Mores Catholici.

In a letter to the Elector of Saxony, in the year 1526, Luther says:*

"Since we are all required, and especially the magistrates, above all other things, to educate the youth who are born and are growing up among us, and to train them up in the fear of God and in the ways of virtue, it is needful that we have schools and preachers and pastors. If the parents will not reform, they must go their way to ruin, but if the young are neglected, and left without education, it is the fault of the state; and the effect will be that the country will swarm with vile and lawless people, so that our safety, no less than the command of God requireth us to foresee and ward off the evil." He maintains in that letter that the government, "as the natural guardian of all the young," has the right to compel the people to support schools. "What is necessary to the well-being of a state, that should be supplied by those who enjoy the privilege of such state Now nothing is more necessary than the training of those who are to come after us and bear rule. If the people are too poor to pay the expense, and are already burdened with taxes, then the monastic funds, which were originally given for such purposes, are to be employed in that way to relieve the people." The cloisters were abandoned in many cases, and the difficult question, what was to be done with their funds, Luther settled in this judicious manner. How nearly did he approach to the policy now so extensively adopted in this country, of supporting schools partly by taxation and partly by funds appropriated for that purpose.

In 1524 he wrote a remarkable production, entitled "An Address to the Common Councils of all the Cities of Germany in behalf of Christian Schools," from which a few passages may here be extracted. After some introductory remarks, he comes directly to his point, and says to his countrymen collectively:

"I entreat you, in God's behalf and that of the poor youth, not to think so lightly of this matter as many do. It is a grave and serious thing, affecting the interest of the kingdom of Christ, and of all the world, that we apply ourselves to the work of aiding and instructing the young. . . . . . . If so much be expended every year in weapons of war, roads, dams, and countless other things of the sort for the safety and prosperity of a city; why should not we expend as much for the benefit of the poor, ignorant youth, to provide them with skillful teachers? God hath verily visited us Germans in mercy and given us a truly golden year. For we now have accomplished and learned young men, adorned with a knowledge of literature and art, who could be of great service if employed to teach the young. . . .

Even if the parents were qualified, and were also inclined to teach, they have so much else to do in their business and household affairs that they can not find the time to educate their children. Thus there is a necessity that public teachers be provided. Otherwise each one would have to teach his own children, which would be for the common people too great a burden. Many a fine boy would be neglected on account of poverty; and many an orphan would suffer from the negligence of guardians. And those who have no children would not trouble themselves at all about the whole matter. Therefore it becometh rulers and magistrates to use the greatest care and diligence in respect to the education of the young.

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* The following extracts are taken from Dr. Sears' "*Life of Martin Luther*," published by the American Sunday School Union.

The diligent and pious teacher who properly instructeth and traineth the young, can never be fully rewarded with money. If I were to leave my office as preacher, I would next chose that of schoolmaster, or teacher of boys; for I know that, next to preaching, this is the greatest, best, and most useful vocation; and I am not quite sure which of the two is the better; for it is hard to reform old sinners, with whom the preacher has to do, while the young tree can be made to bend without breaking."

In 1527, a visitation was made of the churches and schools of the electorate of Saxony, in which more than thirty men were employed a whole year. The result in respect to education was, that the "Saxon school system," as it was called, was drawn up by the joint labors of Luther and Melancthon; and thus the foundation was laid for the magnificent organization of schools to which Germany owes so much of her present fame.

In a letter to Margrave George, of Bradenburg, July 18, 1529:—

"I will tell you what Melancthon and myself, upon mature consideration, think best to be done. First, we think the cloisters and foundations may continue to stand till their inmates die out. . . . . . Secondly, it would be exceedingly well to establish in one or two places in the principality a learned school, in which shall be taught, not only the Holy Scriptures, but law, and all the arts, from whence preachers, pastors, clerks, counselors, &c., may be taken for the whole principality. To this object should the income of the cloisters and other religious foundations be applied, so as to give an honorable support to learned men; two in theology, two in law, one in medicine, one in mathematics, and four or five for grammar, logic, rhetoric, &c. . . . . . Thirdly, in all the towns and villages, good schools for children should be established, from which those who are adapted to higher studies might be taken and trained up for the public."

Under these instructions and appeals a school law was adopted in Wirtemberg in 1559, and modified in 1565; in Saxony in 1560, and improved in 1580; in Hesse in 1565; and in Brandenberg, still earlier; which recognized and provided for the classification, inspection, and support of public schools on substantially the same plan which prevails to this day throughout Germany.

The pedagogical work of Luther—his labors to improve the method of instruction—were continued by Trotzendorf,* in Goldberg, from 1530 to 1556; by Sturm, in Strasbourg, from 1550 to 1589; by Neander, in Ilefeld, from 1570 to 1595, whose schools were all Normal Schools, in the original acceptation of the term, *pattern* or *model* schools, of their time. They were succeeded by Wolfgang Ratich, born at Wilster, in Holstein, in 1571; by Christopher Helwig, born near Frankfort, in 1581; and by Amos Comenius, born at Comna, in Moravia, in 1592; who all labored, by their writings, and by organizing schools and courses of instruction, to disseminate improved methods of teaching. Comenius was invited by an act of parliament in 1631, to visit England for the purpose of introducing his method into the public institutions of that country. But internal commotions interrupted and ultimately defeated his plans.

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* Trotzendorf practiced the monitorial system of instruction two hundred and fifty years before Dr. Bell or Joseph Lancaster set up their claims for its discovery.

In 1618, the religious war—known as the *Thirty Years'* war—broke out in Germany, and for an entire generation swept over the land, wasting harvest fields, destroying cities, tearing fathers from the protection ot their families, scattering teachers and schools, and arresting the progress of all spiritual and educational improvement. At the close of the war, and in some of the smaller states during its progress, the civil government began to take effectual steps to secure the attendance of children at school, by making it compulsory on parents, on penalty of fine and imprisonment for neglect, to send them during a certain age. This was first attempted in Gotha, in 1643; in Heildesheim, in 1663; and in Prussia, in 1669; and Calemberg, in 1681. About this period, two men appeared, Philip J. Spener, born in the Alsace in 1635, and Augustus Herman Franké, born at Lübeck in 1663; who, the first by the invention of the catechetic method, and the last, a pupil of the former, by the foundation of the orphan-house at Halle in 1696, were destined to introduce a new era in the history of education in Germany.

The history of the orphan-house at Halle, is a beautiful illustration of practical Christian charity, and the ever-extending results of educational labor. While pastor of Glaucha, a suburb of Halle, he was in the habit of distributing bread to the poor, with whose poverty and ignorance he was equally distressed. To relieve at once their physical and spiritual destitution, he invited old and young into his house, and while he distributed alms, he at the same time gave oral and catechetical instruction in the principles of the Christian faith. To benefit the orphan children still more, he took a few into his family in 1694, and to avail himself of the gifts of the charitable, he resorted to the following expedient, according to his biographer, Dr. Guerike:

"He caused a box to be fastened up in the parlor of the parsonage-house, and wrote over it, 'Whoso hath this world's goods, and seeth his brother have need, and shutteth up his bowels of compassion from him, how dwelleth the love of God in him?' (1 John iii. 17,) and underneath, 'Every one according as he purposeth in his heart, so let him give; not grudgingly or of necessity; for God loveth a cheerful giver,' (2 Cor. ix. 17.) This box, which was destined for the reception of the casual gifts of those who visited Franké, was fixed up at the commencement of 1695; and not in vain. The passage (2 Cor. ix. 8,) had fallen in his way, a short time before this circumstance, and now occurred the incident related in his letter to Schadé. 'This,' says he, 'served to show me, how God is able to make us abound in every good work.'

'After the poor's-box had been fixed up in my dwelling about a quarter of a year,' relates Franké, 'a certain person put, at one time, four dollars and sixteen groschen into it. On taking this sum into my hand, I exclaimed with great liberty of faith,—This is a considerable sum, with which something really good must be accomplished; I will commence a school with it for the poor. Without conferring, therefore, with flesh and blood, and acting under the impulse of faith, I made arrangement for the purchase of books to the amount of two dollars, and engaged a poor student to instruct the poor children for a couple of hours daily, promising to give him six groschen weekly for so doing, in the hope that God would meanwhile grant more; since in this manner a couple of dollars would be spent in eight weeks.'

Franké, who was ready to offer up whatever he had to the service of his neighbor, fixed upon the ante-chamber of his study, for the school-room of the poor children, who began regularly to receive instruction at Easter, 1695. In this school-room, he caused a second box to be fixed up, with the inscription, 'For the expenses of the instruction of the children, needful books. &c.,' and underneath, 'He that hath pity upon the poor, lendeth to the Lord; and that which he hath given, will he pay him again,' (Prov. xix. 17.)

At Whitsuntide, Franké was visited by some friends, who were much pleased at his efforts in behalf of the poor, to which they contributed a few dollars. Others also gave small donations, from time to time, to the school-box. Soon after Whitsuntide, when some of the townspeople saw how regularly the children of the poor received instruction, they became desirous of sending their children likewise to the same teacher, and offered to pay him weekly a groschen for each child; so that the teacher now received sixteen groschen weekly for a five-hours' daily instruction. The number of his scholars, that summer, amounted to between fifty and sixty, of which the poor, besides gratuitous instruction, also received alms, twice or thrice a-week, to incite them to attend school the more willingly. Donations in money, and linen, for shirts for the poor children. began now to arrive from other places.

About Whitsuntide of the same year, Franké laid also the first foundation for what was subsequently called the royal school. The widow of a nobleman desired him to send her a domestic tutor for her own, and one of her friend's children. He found no one who was sufficiently far advanced in his studies, and therefore proposed to the parents, to send their children to Halle, and that he would then provide for their education, by able teachers and guardians. The parents agreed to this plan; and a few months afterward, an additional number of youths were sent, and thus originated the seminary above mentioned, which, in 1709, consisted of an inspector, twenty-three teachers, and seventy-two scholars; and in 1711, by means of Franké's exertions, had a building appropriated exclusively to it.

In the summer of the same year, 1695, Franké unexpectedly and unsolicitedly received a very considerable contribution; for a person of rank wrote to him with the offer of five hundred dollars, for the purpose of distribution among the poor, and especially among the indigent students. This money was shortly afterward paid over to him. He then selected twenty poor students, whom he assisted with a weekly donation of four, eight, or twelve groschen; 'and this,' says he, 'was in reality the origin of the poor students' participating to the present hour, in the benefits of the orphan-house.'

In the autumn there was no longer sufficient room in the parsonage for the increasing number of scholars; he therefore hired a school-room of one of his neighbors, and a second in the beginning of the winter. He then divided the scholars into two classes, and provided a separate teacher for the children of the townspeople, and another for the children of the poor. Each teacher gave four hours instruction daily, and received a guilder weekly, besides lodging and firing gratis.

But Franké was soon made to see, that many a hopeful child was deprived, when out of school, of all the benefit he received in it. The idea therefore occurred to him, in the autumn of 1695, to undertake the entire charge and education of a limited number of children; 'and this,' says he, 'was the first incitement I felt, and the first idea of the erection of an orphan-house, even before I possessed the smallest funds for the purpose. On mentioning this plan to some of my friends, a pious individual felt induced to fund the sum of five hundred dollars for that purpose,—twenty-five dollars for the interest on which were to be paid over every Christmas, which has also been regularly received. On reflecting upon this instance of the divine bounty, I wished to seek out some poor orphan child, who might be supported by the yearly interest. On this, four fatherless and motherless children, all of the same family, were brought to me. I ventured, in confidence upon God, to receive the whole four; but as one of them was taken by some other good people, only three were left; but a fourth soon appeared in the place of the one that had been taken. I took therefore these four; placed them with religious people, and gave them weekly half a dollar for the bringing up of each. On this, it happened to me, as is generally the case, that when we venture to give a groschen to the poor in faith, we feel afterward no hesitation in venturing a dollar upon the same principle. For after having once begun in God's name, to receive a few poor orphans without any human prospect of certain assistance, (for the interest of the five hundred dollars was not sufficient to feed and clothe a single one,) I boldly left it to the Lord to make up for whatever might be deficient. Hence the orphan-house was by no means commenced and founded upon any certain sum in hand, or on the assurances of persons of rank to take upon themselves the cost and charges, or upon any thing of a similar nature, as was subsequently reported, and as some were inclined to suppose; but solely and simply in reliance on the living God in heaven.

'The day after I had undertaken the charge of the four orphans above-mentioned, two more were added; the next day, another; two days afterward, a fourth, and one more after the lapse of a week. So that, on the 16th November, 1695, there were already nine, who were placed with pious people.' He fixed upon George Henry Neubauer, a student of divinity, to have the oversight of their education and their bringing up. 'Meanwhile,' continues he, 'the faithful God and Father of the fatherless, who is able to do abundantly above what we can ask or think, came so powerfully to my aid, that foolish reason could never have expected it. For he moved the hearts of those persons of rank, who had given me the five hundred dollars already mentioned, to present me with an additional sum of a thousand dollars in the beginning of the winter. And in the middle of the winter, another person of rank was incited to send me three hundred dollars to enable me to continue my attention to the poor. Another individual gave a hundred dollars, and others gave donations of smaller sums.'

Franké had hitherto distributed the money destined for the poor students weekly; but in 1696, the idea occurred to him, instead of a weekly allowance, to give them dinner gratuitously; 'in the firm confidence in God, that he would from time to time send such supplies, as to enable this arrangement to be continued.' By this he expected to be of greater service to the poor students; he could also, in this manner, become better acquainted with them, and possess a better insight into their life and conduct; and lastly, restrain the applications of the less needy, 'who would gladly have been more delicately fed.' Two open tables were therefore provided—each for twelve poor students; and that one thing might assist the other, he selected the teachers of the charity-school from them. This was the origin of the teachers' seminary, which afterward gradually arose out of it.

The schools of the children of the townspeople who paid a certain sum for their instruction, though inadequate to the expense, were separated from the school for the poor, at the request of the townspeople themselves; and in September, 1697, another school was added for those tradesmen's children who were instructed in the elements of superior science. About this time also, more classes were required in the orphan school, on account of the increased number of the pupils. The boys and girls received separate instruction, and when any of the former manifested abilities, they were again separated from the rest, and instructed in languages and the sciences by particular teachers. In May, 1699, Franké united this class of the orphan children with the class of the tradesmen's children, who likewise received superior instruction. These arrangements for imparting a more learned education, show us the rudiments from whence the Latin school or Gymnasium afterward developed itself in Franké's institutions, which in 1709 was attended by two hundred and fifty-six children, of whom sixty-four were orphans, divided into seven classes; and in 1730, by more than five hundred pupils.

At the time of his death, the Orphan House, or Hallische Waisenhaus, embraced all the institutions which now belong to it.

1. The *Orphan Asylum*, established in 1694, in which over 5,000 orphans had been educated, up to 1838, gratuitously. Such of the boys as manifest peculiar talent, are prepared for the university, and supported there.

2. The *Royal Pædagogium*, founded in 1696, for the education of children of rich and noble families. Up to 1839, 2,850 individuals had been educated in this boarding institution. The profits of this school are paid over to the orphan asylum.

3. The *Latin School*, established in 1697, for pupils from abroad, of less wealthy condition than the former, and for boys of the city of Halle.

4. The *German School*, for boys and girls whose parents do not wish to give them a classic education.

These several schools number from 3,000 to 4,000 pupils,[*] of every age, and in every study. Besides these schools there are other features in the institution.

5. The *Canstein Bible Press*, established in 1712, to furnish the Bible at a cheap rate. The profits on the sale of an edition are applied to diminish the expense of the next edition.

6. A *Library*, commenced by Franké by setting apart his own books for the use of his schools, and which now number 20,000 volumes.

7. An *Apothecary's Shop*, commenced by Franké as a medicine chest for the poor, and the profit of which, after furnishing the wants of the orphan-house, are applied to the support of the institution.

8. A *Book Establishment*, in which the classics, and school books, are published at a low price, not only for the institution, but for the trade generally.

9. A house for widows.

We have dwelt on the labors of Franké, because he proved his faith in God by his works, and because he was an educator in the largest and best sense of that designation.

According to his biographer, the first teachers' class was founded by Franké in 1697, by providing a table or free board for such poor students as stood in need of assistance, and selecting, a few years later, out of the whole number, twelve who exhibited the right basis of piety, knowledge, skill and desire for teaching, and constituting them his "Seminarium Præceptorum," Teachers' Seminary. These pupil teachers received separate instruction for two years, and obtained a practical knowledge of methods, in the classes of the several schools. For the assistance thus rendered they bound themselves to teach for three years in the institution after the close of their course. In 1704, according to Raumer, this plan was matured, and the supply of teachers for all the lower classes were drawn from this seminary. But besides the teachers trained in this branch of Franké's great establishment, hundreds of others, attracted by the success of his experiment, resorted to Halle, from all parts of Europe, to profit by the organization, spirit, and method of his various schools. Among the most distinguished of his pupils and disciples, may be named, Count Zinzendorf, the founder of the communities of United Brethren, or Moravians, in Herrnhut, in 1722; Steinmetz, who erected a Normal School in Klosterbergen, in 1730; Hecker, the founder of the first Real

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[*] It is interesting to a visitor to remark in the chief cities of Germany, during certain hours the silence of the streets, with their entire desertion by children, and the contrast of the change produced by the clock striking twelve. The road and footway then suddenly swarm with children, carrying books and slates, and returning from the studies of the morning. The most striking sight of the kind we ever witnessed was at Halle, where, as we approached a large educational establishment, called the "Hallische Waisenhaus," the whole of its juvenile inmates, 3,000 in number, burst forth into the street, and filling up the entire roadway, formed an unbroken stream of a quarter of a mile in length.—*Hickson's Dutch and German Schools.*

School in Berlin, to which a seminary for teachers was attached in 1748; Rambalt, who lectured in the Universities in Jena and Giessen in pedagogic, and reformed the schools in Hesse-Darmstadt; Felbiger, who reorganized the schools of Silesia, and afterward those of Austria;—these, and others scarcely less distinguished, were among the most eminent and successful teachers of the day, and were known as the school of Pietists.

The educational school of Franké was followed by Basedow, (born at Hamburg, in 1723,) Campe, and Salzman, who acquired for themselves a European reputation by the Philanthropinum, founded by the former at Dessau, in 1781.

This institution gave its name to the school of educationists, known as Philanthropinic, and which prevails at this day in some sections of Germany. Its earliest development on the continent was made by Rousseau, in his "Emile," and by John Locke, in England, in his "Thoughts on Education." Its great aim was the formation of a practical character, and this was to be accomplished by following the indications of nature. The body, as well as the mind, was to be hardened and invigorated, and prepared to execute with energy the designs of the mind. The discipline of the family and school was softened by constant appeals to the best principles in the child's nature. Particular attention was paid to instruction in language, music, and the laws and objects of nature. Many of these principles became engrafted on to the teachers of Normal Schools, and through their pupils were introduced into the common schools.

About this time appeared Henry Pestalozzi, who followed in the track of the Philanthropinic School, and by his example and writings, diffused a new spirit among the schools of primary instruction, all over Europe. Although born in Switzerland, at Zurich, in 1746, and although his personal labors were confined to his native country, and their immediate influence was weakened by many defects of character, still his general views of education were so sound and just, that they are now adopted by teachers who never read a word of his life or writings, and by many who never heard of his name. They have become the common property of teachers and educators all over the world. A brief notice* of the leading principles of the system, which now bears his name, and which has moulded the entire character of the schools of Germany, during the last half century, can not be deemed irrelevant.

"The father of Pestalozzi, who was a physician, died when he was quite young, and his early education was left to his mother, and an old domestic of the family, until he was of an age to pass into the grammar school of Zurich. In consequence of such an education, corresponding entirely to his natural disposition, he retained a remarkable gentleness and simplicity of manners, which continued through his long life, and produced that agreeable mixture of manly and female excellence, which rendered him peculiarly interesting to children, to whom his person was unattractive. Oppressive treatment at school, and misapprehension of his views in riper years, gave him, however, a keen sense of justice, which roused him to vindicate the cause of the oppressed among the lower classes of the people, and often made his language as a writer, bitter and sarcastic.

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* Abridged from an article by William C. Woodbridge, in the Annals of Education, for January, 1837.

Pestalozzi first lived in the midst of the people, in order that he might understand their misery, and endeavor to discover its source. He believed that he found it in the want of an observation of nature and mankind—in the absence of spiritual elevation and religious sentiment—in the prejudice, thoughtlessness, levity and disorderly conduct which were the natural results, and the distrust, and obstinate and revengeful disposition which necessarily followed toward those who profited by their weaknesses, or punished their offenses. He believed that a good education for the children of the people was the only means of remedying this evil. The ravages of war had left a multitude of destitute orphans in the small cantons of Switzerland. His first attempt to carry his benevolent plan into execution, was in collecting a number of these poor children at Stanz, devoting himself to their instruction and care in the sacrifice of most of the comforts of life, and providing for their support from his own resources, or from the charity which he solicited from others. Here, he labored to discover the true and simple means of education. He treated his pupils with uniform sympathy and tenderness, and thus attempted to awaken love and confidence in their hearts, and to sow the seed of every good feeling. He therefore assumed *faith and love* as the only true foundation of a system of education.

He subsequently established a school in more regular form in Burgdorf, in the canton of Berne, to which his benevolence and talents attracted a number of fellow-laborers. Here he endeavored to ascertain the principles which should govern the development of the infant faculties, and the proper period for the commencement and completion of each course of instruction in this view.

As the result of his investigations, Pestalozzi assumed as a fundamental principle, that education, in order to fit man for his destination, must proceed according to the laws of nature. To adopt the language of his followers—that it must not act as an arbitrary mediator between the child and nature, between man and God, pursuing its own artificial arrangements, instead of the indications of Providence—that it should assist the course of natural development, instead of doing it violence—that it should watch, and follow its progress, instead of attempting to mark out a path agreeably to a preconceived system.

I. In view of this principle, he did not choose, like Basedow, to cultivate the mind in a material way, merely by inculcating and engrafting every thing relating to external objects, and giving mechanical skill. He sought, on the contrary, to develope, and exercise, and strengthen the faculties of the child by a steady course of excitement to self-activity, with a limited degree of assistance to his efforts.

II. In opposition to the haste, and blind groping of many teachers without system, he endeavored to find the proper point for commencing, and to proceed in a slow and gradual, but uninterrupted course, from one point to another—always waiting until the first should have a certain degree of distinctness in the mind of the child, before entering upon the exhibition of the second. To pursue any other course would only give superficial knowledge, which would neither afford pleasure to the child, nor promote its real progress.

III. He opposed the undue cultivation of the memory and understanding, as hostile to true education. He placed the essence of education in the harmonious and uniform development of every faculty, so that the body should not be in advance of the mind, and that in the development of the mind, neither the physical powers, nor the affections, should be neglected; and that skill in action should be acquired at the same time with knowledge. When this point is secured, we may know that education has really begun, and that it is not merely superficial.

IV. He required close attention and constant reference to the peculiarities of every child, and of each sex, as well as to the characteristics of the people among whom he lived, in order that he might acquire the development and qualifications necessary for the situation to which the Creator destined him, when he gave him these active faculties, and be prepared to labor successfully for those among whom he was placed by his birth.

V. While Basedow introduced a multitude of subjects of instruction into the schools, without special regard to the development of the intellectual powers, Pestalozzi considered this plan as superficial. He limited the elementary subjects of instruction to Form, Number and Language, as the essential condition of definite and distinct knowledge; and believed that these elements should be taught with the utmost possible simplicity, comprehensiveness and mutual connection.

VI. Pestalozzi, as well as Basedow, desired that instruction should commence with the intuition or simple perception of external objects and their relations. He was not, however, satisfied with this alone, but wished that the *art of observing* should also be acquired. He thought the things perceived of less consequence than the cultivation of the perceptive powers, which should enable the child to observe completely,—to exhaust the subjects which should be brought before his mind.

VII. While the Philanthropinists attached great importance to special exercises of reflection, Pestalozzi would not make this a subject of separate study. He maintained that every subject of instruction should be properly treated, and thus become an exercise of thought; and believed, that lessons on Number, and Proportion and Size, would give the best occasion for it.

VIII. Pestalozzi, as well as Basedow, attached great importance to Arithmetic, particularly to Mental Arithmetic. He valued it, however, not merely in the limited view of its practical usefulness, but as an excellent means of strengthening the mind. He also introduced Geometry into the elementary schools, and the art connected with it, of modeling and drawing beautiful objects. He wished, in this way, to train the eye, the hand, and the touch, for that more advanced species of drawing which had not been thought of before. Proceeding from the simple and intuitive, to the more complicated and difficult forms, he arranged a series of exercises so gradual and complete, that the method of teaching this subject was soon brought to a good degree of perfection.

IX. The Philanthropinists introduced the instruction of language into the common schools, but limited it chiefly to the writing of letters and preparation of essays. But Pestalozzi was not satisfied with a lifeless repetition of the rules of grammar, nor yet with mere exercises for common life. He aimed at a development of the laws of language from within—an introduction into its internal nature and construction and peculiar spirit—which would not only cultivate the intellect, but also improve the affections. It is impossible to do justice to his method of instruction on this subject, in a brief sketch like the present—but those who have witnessed its progress and results, are fully aware of its practical character and value.

X. Like Basedow, Rochow and others, Pestalozzi introduced vocal music into the circle of school studies, on account of its powerful influence on the heart. But he was not satisfied that the children should learn to sing a few melodies by note or by ear. He wished them to know the rules of melody and rhythm, and dynamics—to pursue a regular course of instruction, descending to its very elements, and rendering the musical notes as familiar as the sounds of the letters. The extensive work of Nageli and Pfeiffer has contributed very much to give this branch of instruction a better form.

XI. He opposed the abuse which was made of the Socratic method in many of the Philanthropinic and other schools, by attempting to draw something out of children before they had received any knowledge. He recommends, on the contrary, in the early periods of instruction, the established method of dictation by the teacher and repetition by the scholar, with a proper regard to rhythm, and at a later period, especially in the mathematical and other subjects which involve reasoning, the modern method, in which the teacher merely gives out the problems in a proper order, and leaves them to be solved by the pupils, by the exertion of their own powers.

XII. Pestalozzi opposes strenuously the opinion that religious instruction should be addressed exclusively to the understanding; and shows that religion lies deep in the hearts of men, and that it should not be enstamped from without, but developed from within; that the basis of religious feeling is to be found in the childish disposition to love, to thankfulness, to veneration, obedience and confidence toward its parents; that these should be cultivated and strengthened and directed toward God; and that religion should be formally treated of at a later period in connection with the feelings thus excited. As he requires the mother to direct the first development of all the faculties of her child, he assigns to her especially the task of first cultivating the religious feelings.

XIII. Pestalozzi agreed with Basedow, that mutual affection ought to reign between the educator and the pupil, both in the house and in the school, in order to render education effectual and useful. He was, therefore, as little disposed as Basedow, to sustain school despotism; but he did not rely on artificial excitements, such as those addressed to emulation. He preferred that the children should find their best reward in the consciousness of increased intellectual vigor; and expected the teacher to render the instruction so attractive, that the delightful feeling of progress should be the strongest excitement to industry and to morality.

XIV. Pestalozzi attached as much importance to the cultivation of the bodily powers, and the exercise of the senses, as the Philanthropinists, and in his publications, pointed out a graduated course for this purpose. But as Gutsmuths, Vieth, Jahn, and Clias treated this subject very fully, nothing further was written concerning it by his immediate followers.

Such are the great principles which entitle Pestalozzi to the high praise of having given a more natural, a more comprehensive and deeper foundation for education and instruction, and of having called into being a method which is far superior to any that preceded it.

But with all the excellencies of the system of education adopted by Pestalozzi, truth requires us to state that it also involves serious defects.

1. In his zeal for the improvement of the mind itself, and for those modes of instruction which were calculated to develop and invigorate its faculties, Pestalozzi forgot too much the necessity of general positive knowledge, as the material for thought and for practical use in future life. The pupils of his establishment, instructed on his plan, were too often dismissed with intellectual powers which were vigorous and acute, but without the stores of knowledge important for immediate use—well qualified for mathematical and abstract reasoning, but not prepared to apply it to the business of common life.

2. He commenced with intuitive, mathematical studies too early, attached too much importance to them, and devoted a portion of time to them, which did not allow a reasonable attention to other studies, and which prevented the regular and harmonious cultivation of other powers.

3. The *method* of instruction was also defective in one important point. Simplification was carried too far, and continued too long. The mind became so accustomed to receive knowledge divided into its most simple elements and smallest portions, that it was not prepared to embrace complicated ideas, or to make those rapid strides in investigation and conclusion which is one of the most important results of a sound education, and which indicates the most valuable kind of mental vigor both for scientific purposes and for practical life.

4. He attached too little importance to testimony as one of the sources of our knowledge, and devoted too little attention to historical truth. He was accustomed to observe that history was but a 'tissue of lies;' and forgot that it was necessary to occupy the pupil with man, and with moral events, as well as with nature and matter, if we wish to cultivate properly his moral powers, and elevate him above the material world.

5. But above all, it is to be regretted, that in reference to religious education, he fell into an important error of his predecessors. His too exclusive attention to mathematical and scientific subjects, tended, like the system of Basedow, to give his pupils the habit of undervaluing historical evidence and of demanding rational demonstration for every truth, or of requiring the evidence of their senses, or something analogous to it, to which they were constantly called to appeal in their studies of Natural History.

It is precisely in this way, that many men of profound scientific attainments have been led to reject the evidence of revelation, and some, even, strange as it may seem, to deny the existence of Him, whose works and laws they study. In some of the early Pestalozzian schools, feelings of this nature were particularly cherished by the habit of asserting a falsehood in the lessons on Mathematics or Natural history, and calling upon the pupils to contradict it or disprove it if they did not admit its truth. No improvement of the intellectual powers, can, in our view, compensate for the injury to the moral sense and the diminished respect for truth, which will naturally result from such a course.

6. While Pestalozzi disapproved of the attempts of the Philanthropinists to draw forth from the minds of children, before they had stores of knowledge, he seemed to forget the application of his principle to moral subjects, or to imagine that this most elevated species of knowledge was innate. He attempted too much to draw from the minds of his pupils those great truths of religion and the

spiritual world which can only be acquired from revelation; and thus led them to imagine they were competent to judge on this subject without external aid. It is obvious that such a course would fall in most unhappily with the tendencies produced by other parts of the plan, and that we could not hope to educate in such a mode, a truly Christian community.

The personal character of Pestalozzi also influenced his views and methods of education on religious subjects. He was remarkably the creature of powerful impulses, which were usually of the most mild and benevolent kind; and he preserved a child-like character in this respect even to old age. It was probably this temperament, which led him to estimate at a low rate the importance of positive religious truth in the education of children, and to maintain that the mere habit of faith and love, if cultivated toward earthly friends and benefactors, would, of course, be transferred to our Heavenly Father, whenever his character should be exhibited to the mind of the child. The fundamental error of this view was established by the unhappy experience of his own institution. His own example afforded the most striking evidence that the noblest impulses, not directed by established principles, may lead to imprudence and ruin, and thus defeat their own ends. As an illustration of this, it may be mentioned that. on one of those occasions, frequently occurring, on which he was reduced to extremity for want of the means of supplying his large family, he borrowed four hundred dollars from a friend for the purpose. In going home, he met a peasant, wringing his hands in despair for the loss of his cow. Pestalozzi put the entire bag of money into his hands, and ran off to escape his thanks. These circumstances, combined with the want of tact in reference to the affairs of common life, materially impaired his powers of usefulness as a practical instructor of youth. The rapid progress of his ideas rarely allowed him to execute his own plans; and, in accordance with his own system, too much time was employed in the profound development of principles, to admit of much attention to their practical application.

But, as one of his admirers observed, it was his province to educate ideas and not children. He combated, with unshrinking boldness and untiring perseverance, through a long life, the prejudices and abuses of the age in reference to education, both by his example and by his numerous publications. He attacked with great vigor and no small degree of success, that favorite maxim of bigotry and tyranny, that obedience and devotion are the legitimate offspring of ignorance. He denounced that degrading system, which considers it enough to enable man to procure a subsistence for himself and his offspring—and in this manner, merely to place him on a level with the beast of the forest; and which deems every thing lost whose value can not be estimated in money. He urged upon the consciences of parents and rulers, with an energy approaching that of the ancient prophets, the solemn duties which Divine Providence had imposed upon them, in committing to their charge the present and future destinies of their fellow-beings. In this way, he produced an impulse, which pervaded the continent of Europe, and which, by means of his popular and theoretical works, reached the cottages of the poor and the palaces of the great. His institution at Yverdun was crowded with men of every nation; not merely those who were led by the same impulse which inspired him, but by the agents of kings and noblemen, and public institutions, who came to make themselves acquainted with his principles, in order to become his fellow-laborers in other countries."

When the Prussian Government, in 1809, undertook systematically the work of improving the elementary schools, as a means of creating and diffusing a patriotic spirit among the people, the fame of Pestalozzi was at its height. To him and to his school, to his method and to his disciples, the attention of the best teachers in the kingdom was turned for guidance and aid. Several enthusiastic young teachers were sent to his institution at Yverdun, (Iferten,) to study his methods and imbibe his spirit of devotion to the children of the poor. One of his favorite pupils, C. B. Zeller, of Wirtemberg, and who shared with him in certain weaknesses of character, which prevented his attaining the highest success as a practical educator in carrying out the details of an extensive plan, was invited to organize a Normal School at Königsberg, in the orphan-house (orphanotrophy) established by Frederick III., on the 13th of January, 1701, the day on which he declared his dukedom a kingdom, and caused himself to be crowned king, under the name of Frederick the First. To this seminary, during the first year of its existence, upward of one hundred clergymen, and eighty teachers, resorted, at the expense of the government, to acquire the principles and methods of the Pestalozzian system. Through them, and the teachers who went directly to Pestalozzi, these principles and methods were transplanted not only into various parts of Prussia, but also into the schools and seminaries of other states in Germany. Not even in Switzerland is the name of this philanthropist and educator so warmly cherished as in Prussia.

His centennial birthday was celebrated throughout Germany, and particularly in Prussia, on the 12th of January, 1846, with an enthusiasm usually awarded only to the successful soldier. In more than one hundred cities and villages, in upward of one thousand schools, by more than fifty thousand teachers, it is estimated in a German school journal, was the anniversary marked by some public demonstration. The following notice of the appropriate manner in which it was celebrated in Leipsic, by founding a charity for the orphans of teachers, and for poor and neglected children generally, is abridged from an extended notice in Reden's School Gazette.

> "At the first school hour, the elder pupils of the city school at Leipsic, were informed by a public address of the eminent merits of Pestalozzi as an eminent teacher, and a program, with his portrait, handed to them; this program contained an address to the citizens of Leipsic, by the Rev. Dr. Naumann; the plan of a public charity, to be called the Pestalozzi Foundation, (Hiftung,) by Director Vogel; and a biographical sketch, by Professor Plato. At ten o'clock, the elder pupils of the burgher school, and delegates from all the schools, with their teachers, and the friends of education, assembled in the great hall of one of the public schools; on the walls were portraits of Pestalozzi, adorned with garlands. Addresses were made by the Rev. Dr. Naumann, who had visited Pestalozzi in Iferten, and by other gentlemen, while the intervals were enlivened by songs and music composed for the occasion. In the evening a general association of all the teachers in Leipsic was formed, for the purpose of establishing 'the Pestalozzi foundation,' designed for the education of poor and neglected children."

In Dresden a similar charity was commenced for the benefit of all orphans of teachers from any part of Saxony. The same thing was done in nearly all the large cities of Germany. In Berlin a Pestalozzi foundation was commenced for an orphan-house, to which contributions had been made from all provinces of Prussia, and from other states of Germany; to the direction of this institution Dr. Diesterweg has been appointed.

The schools of most of the teachers and educators, whose names have been introduced, were in reality Teachers' Seminaries, although not so designated by themselves or others. Their establishments were not simply schools for children, but were conducted to test and exemplify principles and methods of education, and these were perpetuated and disseminated by means of books in which they were embodied, or of pupils and disciples who transplanted them into other places.

As has been already stated, on the authority of Franké's biographer, and of Schwartz, Raumer, and other writers on the history of education in Germany, the first regularly-organized Teachers' Seminary, or Normal School, (not *normal* in the sense in which the word was originally used, as a school of children so conducted as to be a *model* or *pattern* for teachers to imitate, but a *school of young men*, who had already passed through an elementary, or even a superior school, and who were preparing to be teachers, by making additional attainments, and acquiring a knowledge of the human mind, and the principles of education as a science, and of its methods as an art,) was established in Halle, in a part of Hanover, prior to 1704. About the same period, Steinmetz opened a class for teachers in the Abbey of Klosterberge, near Magdeburg, and which was continued by Resewitz, by whom the spirit and method of Franké and the pietists were transplanted into the north of Germany. In 1730, lectures on philology and the best methods of teaching the Latin, Greek and German languages, were common in the principal universities and higher schools. The first regularly-organized seminary for this purpose, was established at Gottingen, in 1738, and by its success led to the institution of a similar course of study and practice in Jena, Helle, Helmstadt, Heidelberg, Berlin, Munich, &c.

In 1735, the first seminary for primary school teachers was established in Prussia, at Stettin, in Pomerania. In 1748, Hecker, a pupil of Franké, and the founder of burgher, or what we should call high schools, established an institution for teachers of elementary schools, in Berlin, in which the king testified an interest, and enjoined, by an ordinance in 1752, that the country schools on the crown lands in New Mark and Pomerania should be supplied by pupil teachers from this institution who had learned the culture of silk and mulberries in Hecker's institution, with a view of carrying forward industrial instruction into that section of his kingdom. In 1757, Baron von Fürstenberg established a seminary for teachers at Munster, in Hanover. In 1767, the Canan von Rochow opened a school on his estate in Rekane, in Bradenburg, where, by lectures and practice, he prepared schoolmasters for country schools on his own and neighboring properties. To these schools teachers were sent from all parts of Germany, to be trained in the principles and practice of primary instruction. In 1770, Bishop Febinger, organized a Normal (*model*) School in Vienna, with a course of lectures and practice for teachers, extending through four months; and about the same time the deacon Ferdinand Kindermann, or von Schulstein, as he was called by Maria Theresa, converted a school in Kaplitz, in Bohemia, into a Normal Institution. Between 1770 and 1800, as will be seen by the following Table, teachers' seminaries were introduced into nearly every German state, which, in all but three instances, were supported in whole or in part by the government.

As the demand for good teachers exceeded the supply furnished by these seminaries, private institutions have sprung up, some of which have attained a popularity equal to the public institutions. But in no state have such private schools been able to sustain themselves, until the government seminaries and the public school system had created a demand for well-qualified teachers. And in no state in Europe has the experiment of making seminaries for primary school teachers an appendage to a university, or a gymnasium, or any other school of an academic character, proved successful for any considerable period of time, or on an extensive scale.

At the beginning of the present century, there were about thirty teachers' seminaries in operation. The wars growing out of the French Revolution suspended for a time the movements in behalf of popular education, until the success of the new organization of schools in Prussia, commencing in 1809, arrested the attention of governments and individuals all over the continent, and has led, within the last quarter of a century, not only to the establishment of seminaries nearly sufficient to supply the annual demand for teachers, but to the more perfect organization of the whole system of public instruction.

The cardinal principles of the system of Primary Public Instruction as now organized in the German states, are,

First. The recognition on the part of the government of the right, duty and interest of every community, not only to co-operate with parents in the education of children, but to provide, as far as practicable, by efficient inducement and penalties, against the neglect of this first of parental obligations, in a single instance. The school obligation,—the duty of parents to send their children to school, or provide for their instruction at home,—was enforced by law in Saxe-Gotha, in 1643; in Saxony and Wirtemberg, in 1659; in Hildesheim in 1663; in Calemberg, in 1681; in Celle, in 1689; in Prussia, in 1717; and in every state of Germany, before the beginning of the present century. But it is only within the last thirty years, that government enactments have been made truly efficient by enlisting the habits and good will of the people on the side of duty. We must look to the generation of men now coming into active life for the fruits of this principle, universally recognized, and in most cases wisely enforced in every state, large and small, Catholic and Protestant, and having more or less of constitutional guaranties and forms.

Second. The establishment of a sufficient number of permanent schools of different grades, according to the population, in every neighborhood, with a suitable outfit of buildings, furniture, appendages and apparatus.

Third. The specific preparation of teachers, as far as practicable, for the particular grade of schools for which they are destined, with opportunities for professional employment and promotion through life.

Fourth. Provision on the part of the government to make the schools accessible to the poorest, not, except in comparatively a few instances, and those in the most despotic governments, by making them free to the poor, but cheap to all.

Fifth. A system of inspection, variously organized, but constant, general, and responsible—reaching every locality, every school, every teacher, and pervading the whole state from the central government to the remotest district.

The success of the school systems of Germany is universally attributed by her own educators to the above features of her school law—especially those which relate to the teacher. These provisions respecting teachers may be summed up as follows:—

1. The recognition of the true dignity and importance of the office of teacher in a system of public instruction.

2. The establishment of a sufficient number of Teachers' Seminaries, or Normal Schools, to educate, in a special course of instruction and practice, all persons who apply or propose to teach in any public primary school, with aids to self and professional improvement through life.

3. A system of examination and inspection, by which incompetent persons are prevented from obtaining situations as teachers, or are excluded and degraded from the ranks of the profession, by unworthy or criminal conduct.

4. A system of promotion, by which faithful teachers can rise in a scale of lucrative and desirable situations.

5. Permanent employment through the year, and for life, with a social position and a compensation which compare favorably with the wages paid to educated labor in other departments of business.

6. Preparatory schools, in which those who wish eventually to become teachers, may test their natural qualities and adaptation for school teaching before applying for admission to a Normal School.

7. Frequent conferences and associations for mutual improvement, by an interchange of opinion and sharing the benefit of each others' experience.

8. Exemption from military service in time of peace, and recognition, in social and civil life, as public functionaries.

9. A pecuniary allowance when sick, and provision for years of infirmity and old age, and for their families in case of death.

10. Books and periodicals, by which the obscure teacher is made partaker in all the improvements of the most experienced and distinguished members of the profession in his own and other countries.

With this brief and rapid survey of the history and condition of Popular Education in Germany, we will now pass to a more particular description of primary schools in several states, with special reference to the organization and course of instruction of Normal Seminaries, and other means and agencies for the professional training of teachers. Before doing this, we publish a table, prepared from a variety of school documents, exhibiting the number and location of Normal Schools in Germany, with the testimony of some of our best educators as to the result of this Normal School system.

TABLE.

NUMBER AND LOCATION OF NORMAL SEMINARIES IN THE DIFFERENT STATES OF GERMANY.

The following Table has been compiled from recent official documents and school journals, and without being complete, is accurate as far as it goes. Calinich, in an article in Reden's Magazine, estimates the whole number of public and private seminaries in Germany, at one hundred and fifty-six, and the preparatory schools at two hundred and six.

PRUSSIA, ... 45

SUPERIOR SEMINARIES.

Stettin, founded 1735; Potsdam, foun. 1748; Breslou, foun. 1765; Halberstadt, f. 1778; Magdeburg, f. 1790; Weissenfels, f. 1794; Karalene, f. 1811; Braunsberg, f. 1810; Marienburg, f. 1814; Graudenz, f. 1816; Neuzelle, f. 1817; Berlin, f. 1830; Cöslin, f. 1806; Bunzlau, f. 1816; Bromberg, f. 1819; Paradies, f. 1838; Erfurt, f. 1820; Büren, f. 1825; Meurs, f. 1820; Neuwied, f. 1816; Brühl, f. 1823; Kempen, f. 1840; Königsberg, re-organized, 1809; Ober-Glogau, re-or., 1815; Posen, f. 1804; Soest, f. 1818; Löwen, f. 1849.

SMALL, OR SECONDARY SEMINARIES.

Angerburg, f. 1829; Mühlhausen, Greifswald, f. 1791; Kammin, f. 1840, Pyritz, f. 1827; Trzemesseo, f. 1829; Gardelegen, f. 1821; Eisleben, f. 1836; Petershagen, f. 1831; Langenhorst, f. 1830; Heiligenstadt, Eylau, Alt-Döbern, Stralsund.

FOR FEMALE TEACHERS.

Münster; Paderborn; private seminaries in Berlin, (Bormann); Marienwerder, (Alberti;) Kaiserswerth, (Fleidner.)

AUSTRIA, ... : 11

Vienna, f. 1771; Prague, Trieste, Salzburg, Inspruck, Graz, Görz, Klagenfurt, Laibach, Linz, Brünn.

SAXONY, ... 10

Dresden, f. 1785; Fletcher's seminary, f. 1825; Freiberg, f. 1797; Zittau, Budissin, Plauen, Grimma, Annaberg, Pirna, Waldenburg.

BAVARIA, ... 9

Bamberg, f. 1777; Eichstädt, Speyer, Kaiserslautern, Lauingen, Altdorf, Schwabach.

WIRTEMBERG, ... 8

Esslingen, Oehringen, Gmünd, Nürtingen, Stuttgart, Weingarten, Tübingen.

HANOVER, ... 7

Alfeld, f. 1750; Hanover, Hildesheim, Osnabrück, Stade; one for Jewish teachers in Hanover.

BADEN, ... 4

Carlsruhe, f. 1768; Ettlingen, Meersburg, Müllheim.

HESSE-CASSEL, ... 3

Fulda, Homberg, Schlichtern.

HESSE-DARMSTADT, ... 2

Friedberg, Bensheim.

ANHALT, ... 3

Bernburg, Cöthen, Dessau.

REUSS, ... 3

Greiz, Gera, Schleiz.

SAXE COBURG-GOTHA, ... 2

Coburg; Gotha, f. 1779.

SAXE MEININGEN, ... 1

Hildburghausen.

SAXE WEIMAR, ... 2

Weimar, Eisenach.

OLDENBURG, ... 2

Oldenburg, Birkenfeld.

HOLSTEIN, ... 1

Segeberg, f. 1780.

SAXE-ALTENBURG, ... 1

Altenburg.

NASSAU, ... 1

Idstein.

BRUNSWICK, ... 1

Wolfenbüttel.

LUXEMBURG, ... 1

Luxemburg.

LIPPE, ... 1

Detmold.

MECKLENBURG SCHWERIN, ... 1

Ludwigslust.

MECKLENBURG STRELITZ, ... 1

Mirow.

SCHWARZBURG, ... 1

Rudolstadt.

LUBECK, ... 1

BREMEN, ... 1

HAMBURG, ... 1

FRANKFORT 1

RESULTS

OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL SYSTEM IN GERMANY.

The following testimony as to the results of the system of training teachers in institutions organized and conducted with special reference to communicating a knowledge of the science and art of education, is gathered from American documents.

Rev. Calvin E. Stowe, D. D., Professor of Biblical Literature in Lane Seminary, Cincinnati, Ohio, in a "*Report on Elementary Public Instruction in Europe*," submitted to the General Assembly of Ohio, December, 1839, after describing the course of instruction pursued in the common schools of Prussia and Wirtemberg, thus sums up the character of the system in reference particularly to the wants of Ohio:

"The striking features of this system, even in the hasty and imperfect sketch which my limits allow me to give, are obvious even to superficial observation. No one can fail to observe its great completeness, both as to the number and kind of subjects embraced in it, and as to its adaptedness to develop every power of every kind, and give it a useful direction. What topic, in all that is necessary for a sound business education, is here omitted? I can think of nothing, unless it be one or two of the modern languages, and these are introduced wherever it is necessary. I have not taken the course precisely as it exists in any one school, but have combined, from an investigation of many institutions, the features which I suppose would most fairly represent the whole system. In the Rhenish provinces of Prussia, in a considerable part of Bavaria, Baden, and Wirtemberg, French is taught as well as German; and in the schools of Prussian Poland, German and Polish are taught. Two languages can be taught in a school quite as easily as one, provided the teacher be perfectly familiar with both, as any one may see by visiting Mr. Solomon's school in Cincinnati, where all the instruction is given both in German and English.

What faculty of mind is there that is not developed in the scheme of instruction sketched above? I know of none. The perceptive and reflective faculties, the memory and the judgment, the imagination and the taste, the moral and religious faculty, and even the various kinds of physical and manual dexterity, all have opportunity for development and exercise. Indeed, I think the system, in its great outlines, as nearly complete as human ingenuity and skill can make it; though undoubtedly some of its arrangements and details admit of improvement; and some changes will of course be necessary in adapting it to the circumstances of different countries.

The entirely practical character of the system is obvious throughout. It views every subject on the practical side, and in reference to its adaptedness to use. The dry, technical, abstract parts of science are not those first presented; but the system proceeds, in the only way which nature ever pointed out, from practice to theory, from facts to demonstrations. It has often been a complaint in respect to some systems of education, that the more a man studied, the less he knew of the actual business of life. Such a complaint cannot be made in reference to this system, for, being intended to educate for the actual business of life, this object is never for a moment lost sight of.

Another striking feature of the system is its moral and religious character. Its morality is pure and elevated, its religion entirely removed from the narrowness of sectarian bigotry. What parent is there, loving his children, and wishing to have them respected and happy, who would not desire that they should be educated under such a kind of moral and religious influence as has been described? Whether a believer in revelation or not, does he not know that without sound morals there can be no happiness, and that there is no morality like the morality of the New Testament? Does he not know that without religion the human heart can never be at rest, and that there is no religion like the religion of the Bible? Every well-informed man knows that, as a general fact, it is impossible to impress the obligations of morality with any efficiency on the heart of a child, or even on that of an adult, without an appeal to some code which is sustained by the authority of God; and for what code will it be possible to claim this authority, if not for the code of the Bible?

But perhaps some will be ready to say, 'The scheme is indeed an excellent one, provided only it were practicable; but the idea of introducing so extensive and complete a course of study into our common schools is entirely visionary, and can never be realized.' I answer, that it is no theory which I have been exhibiting, but a matter of fact, a copy of actual practice. The above system is no visionary scheme, emanating from the closet of a recluse, but a sketch of the course of instruction now actually pursued by thousands of schoolmasters, in the best district schools that have ever been organized. It can be done; for it has been done—it is now done: and it ought to be done. If it can be done in Europe, I believe it can be done in the United States: if it can be done in Prussia, I know it can be done in Ohio. The people have but to say the word and provide the means, and the thing is accomplished; for the word of the people here is even more powerful than the word of the king there; and the means of the people here are altogether more abundant for such an object than the means of the sovereign there. Shall this object, then, so desirable in itself, so entirely practicable, so easily within our reach, fail of accomplishment? For the honor and welfare of our state, for the safety of our whole nation, I trust it will not fail; but that we shall soon witness, in this commonwealth, the introduction of a system of common-school instruction, fully adequate to all the wants of our population.

But the question occurs, *How* can this be done? I will give a few brief hints as to some things which I suppose to be essential to the attainment of so desirable an end.

1. Teachers must be skillful, and trained to their business. It will at once be perceived, that the plan above sketched out proceeds on the supposition that the teacher has fully and distinctly in his mind the whole course of instruction, not only as it respects the matters to be taught, but also as to all the best modes of teaching, that he may be able readily and decidedly to vary his method according to the peculiarities of each individual mind which may come under his care. This is the only true secret of successful teaching. The old mechanical method, in which the teacher relies entirely on his text-book, and drags every mind along through the same dull routine of creeping recitation, is utterly insufficient to meet the wants of our people. It may do in Asiatic Turkey, where the whole object of the school is to learn to pronounce the words of the Koran in one dull, monotonous series of sounds; or it may do in China, where men must never speak or think out of the old beaten track of Chinese imbecility; but it will never do in the United States, where the object of education ought to be to make immediately available, for the highest and best purposes, every particle of real talent that exists in the nation. To effect such a purpose, the teacher must possess a strong and independent mind, well disciplined, and well stored with every thing pertaining to his profession, and ready to adapt his instructions to every degree of intellectual capacity, and every kind of acquired habit. But how can we expect to find such teachers, unless they are trained to their business? A very few of extraordinary powers may occur, as we sometimes find able mechanics, and great mathematicians, who had no early training in their favorite pursuits; but these few exceptions to a general rule will never multiply fast enough to supply our schools with able teachers. The management of the human mind, particularly youthful mind, is the most delicate task ever committed to the hand of man; and shall it be left to mere instinct, or shall our schoolmasters have at least as careful a training as our lawyers and physicians?

2. Teachers, then, must have the means of acquiring the necessary qualifications; in other words, there must be institutions in which the business of teaching

is made a systematic object of attention. I am not an advocate for multiplying our institutions. We already have more in number than we support, and it would be wise to give power and efficiency to those we now possess before we project new ones. But the science and art of teaching ought to be a regular branch of study in some of our academies and high schools, that those who are looking forward to this profession may have an opportunity of studying its principles. In addition to this, in our populous towns, where there is opportunity for it, there should be large model schools, under the care of the most able and experienced teachers that can be obtained; and the candidates for the profession who have already completed the theoretic course of the academy, should be employed in this school as monitors, or assistants—thus testing all their theories by practice, and acquiring skill and dexterity under the guidance of their head master. Thus, while learning, they would be teaching, and no time or effort would be lost. To give efficiency to the whole system, to present a general standard and a prominent point of union, there should be at least one model teachers' seminary, at some central point—as at Columbus—which shall be amply provided with all the means of study and instruction, and have connected with it schools of every grade, for the practice of the students, under the immediate superintendence of their teachers.

3. The teachers must be competently supported, and devoted to their business. Few men attain any great degree of excellence in a profession unless they love it, and place all their hopes in life upon it. A man cannot, consistently with his duty to himself, engage in a business which does not afford him a competent support, unless he has other means of living, which is not the case with many who engage in teaching. In this country especially, where there are such vast fields of profitable employment open to every enterprising man, it is not possible that the best of teachers can be obtained, to any considerable extent, for our district schools, at the present rate of wages. We have already seen what encouragement is held out to teachers in Russia, Prussia, and other European nations, and what pledges are given of competent support to their families, not only while engaged in the work, but when, having been worn out in the public service, they are no longer able to labor. In those countries, where every profession and walk of life is crowded, and where one of the most common and oppressive evils is want of employment, men of high talents and qualifications are often glad to become teachers even of district schools; men who in this country would aspire to the highest places in our colleges, or even our halls of legislation and courts of justice. How much more necessary, then, here, that the profession of teaching should afford a competent support!

Indeed, such is the state of things in this country, that we cannot expect to find male teachers for all our schools. The business of educating, especially young children, must fall, to a great extent, on female teachers. There is not the same variety of tempting employment for females as for men; they can be supported cheaper, and the Creator has given them peculiar qualifications for the education of the young. Females, then, ought to be employed extensively in all our elementary schools, and they should be encouraged and aided in obtaining the qualifications necessary for this work. There is no country in the world where woman holds so high a rank, or exerts so great an influence, as here; wherefore, her responsibilities are the greater, and she is under obligations to render herself the more actively useful.

4. The children must be made comfortable in their school; they must be punctual, and attend the whole course. There can be no profitable study without personal comfort; and the inconvenience and miserable arrangements of some of our school-houses are enough to annihilate all that can be done by the best of teachers. No instructor can teach unless the pupils are present to be taught, and no plan of systematic instruction can be carried steadily through unless the pupils attend punctually and through the whole course.

5. The children must be given up implicitly to the discipline of the school. Nothing can be done unless the teacher has the entire control of his pupils in school-hours, and out of school too, so far as the rules of the school are concerned. If the parent in any way interferes with, or overrules, the arrangements of the teacher, he may attribute it to himself if the school is not successful. No teacher ever ought to be employed to whom the entire management of the children can-

not be safely intrusted; and better at any time dismiss the teacher than counteract his discipline. Let parents but take the pains and spend the money necessary to provide a comfortable school-house and a competent teacher for their children, and they never need apprehend that the discipline of the school will be unreasonably severe. No inconsiderable part of the corporal punishment that has been inflicted in schools, has been made necessary by the discomfort of school-houses and the unskillfulness of teachers. A lively, sensitive boy is stuck upon a bench full of knot-holes and sharp ridges, without a support for his feet or his back, with a scorching fire on one side of him and a freezing wind on the other; and a stiff Orbilius of a master, with wooden brains and iron hands, orders him to sit perfectly still, with nothing to employ his mind or his body, till it is *his turn to read.* Thus confined for hours, what can the poor little fellow do but begin to wriggle like a fish out of water, or an eel in a frying-pan? For this irrepressible effort at relief he receives a box on the ear; this provokes and renders him still more uneasy, and next comes the merciless ferule; and the poor child is finally burnt and frozen, cuffed and beaten, into hardened roguery or incurable stupidity, just because the avarice of his parents denied him a comfortable school-house and a competent teacher.

6. A beginning must be made at certain points, and the advance toward completeness must be gradual. Every thing cannot be done at once, and such a system as is needed cannot be generally introduced till its benefits are first demonstrated by actual experiment. Certain great points, then, where the people are ready to co-operate, and to make the most liberal advances, in proportion to their means, to maintain the schools, should be selected, and no pains or expense spared, till the full benefits of the best system are realized; and as the good effects are seen, other places will very readily follow the example. All experience has shown that governmental patronage is most profitably employed, not to do the entire work, but simply as an incitement to the people to help themselves.

To follow up this great object, the Legislature has wisely made choice of a Superintendent, whose untiring labors and disinterested zeal are worthy of all praise. But no great plan can be carried through in a single year; and if the Superintendent is to have opportunity to do what is necessary, and to preserve that independence and energy of official character which are requisite to the successful discharge of his duties, he should hold his office for the same term, and on the same conditions, as the Judges of the Supreme Court.

Every officer engaged in this, or in any other public work, should receive a suitable compensation for his services. This, justice requires; and it is the only way to secure fidelity and efficiency.

There is one class of our population for whom some special provision seems necessary. The children of foreign emigrants are now very numerous among us, and it is essential that they receive a good ENGLISH EDUCATION. But they are not prepared to avail themselves of the advantages of our common English schools, their imperfect acquaintance with the language being an insuperable bar to their entering on the course of study. It is necessary, therefore, that there be some preparatory schools, in which instruction shall be communicated both in English and their native tongue. The English is, and must be, the language of this country, and the highest interests of our state demand it of the Legislature to require that the English language be thoroughly taught in every school which they patronize. Still, the exigencies of the case make it necessary that there should be some schools expressly fitted to the condition of our foreign emigrants, to introduce them to a knowledge of our language and institutions. A school of this kind has been established in Cincinnati, by benevolent individuals. It has been in operation about a year, and already nearly three hundred children have received its advantages. Mr. Solomon, the head teacher, was educated for his profession in one of the best institutions of Prussia, and in this school he has demonstrated the excellences of the system. The instructions are all given both in German and English, and this use of two languages does not at all interrupt the progress of the children in their respective studies. I cannot but recommend this philanthropic institution to the notice and patronage of the Legislature.*

In neighborhoods where there is a mixed population, it is desirable, if possible, to employ teachers who understand both languages, and that the exercises of the school be conducted in both, with the rule, however, that all the reviews and examinations *be in English only*."

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* German schools now form a part of the system of public schools in Cincinnati.

Alexander Dallas Bache, LL. D., Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey, in a "*Report on Education in Europe*," to the Trustees of the Girard College of Orphans, Philadelphia, in 1838, remarks as follows:

"When education is to be rapidly advanced, Seminaries for Teachers offer the means of securing this result. An eminent teacher is selected as Director of the Seminary; and by the aid of competent assistants, and while benefiting the community by the instruction given in the schools attached to the Seminary, trains, yearly, from thirty to forty youths in the enlightened practice of his methods; these, in their turn, become teachers of schools, which they are fit at once to conduct, without the failures and mistakes usual with novices; for though beginners in name, they have acquired, in the course of the two or three years spent at the Seminary, an experience equivalent to many years of unguided efforts. This result has been fully realized in the success of the attempts to spread the methods of Pestalozzi and others through Prussia. The plan has been adopted, and is yielding its appropriate fruits in Holland, Switzerland, France, and Saxony; while in Austria, where the method of preparing teachers by their attendance on the primary schools is still adhered to, the schools are stationary, and behind those of Northern and Middle Germany.

These Seminaries produce a strong *esprit de corps* among teachers, which tends powerfully to interest them in their profession, to attach them to it, to elevate it in their eyes, and to stimulate them to improve constantly upon the attainments with which they may have commenced its exercise. By their aid a standard of examination in the theory and practice of instruction is furnished, which may be fairly exacted of candidates who have chosen a different way to obtain access to the profession."

Hon. Horace Mann, in his "*Seventh Annual Report as Secretary of the Board of Education in Massachusetts*," in which he gives an account of an educational tour through the principal countries of Europe in the summer of 1843, says:

"Among the nations of Europe, Prussia has long enjoyed the most distinguished reputation for the excellence of its schools. In reviews, in speeches, in tracts, and even in graver works devoted to the cause of education, its schools have been exhibited as models for the imitation of the rest of Christendom. For many years, scarce a suspicion was breathed that the general plan of education in that kingdom was not sound in theory and most beneficial in practice. Recently, however, grave charges have been preferred against it by high authority. The popular traveler, Laing, has devoted several chapters of his large work on Prussia to the disparagement of its school system. An octavo volume, entitled 'The Age of Great Cities,' has recently appeared in England, in which that system is strongly condemned; and during the pendency of the famous 'Factories' Bill' before the British House of Commons, in 1843, numerous tracts were issued from the English press, not merely calling in question, but strongly denouncing, the whole plan of education in Prussia, as being not only designed to produce, but as actually producing, a spirit of blind acquiescence to arbitrary power, in things spiritual as well as temporal—as being, in fine, a system of education adapted to enslave, and not to enfranchise, the human mind. And even in some parts of the United States—the very nature and essence of whose institutions consist in the idea that the people are wise enough to distinguish between what is right and what is wrong—even here, some have been illiberal enough to condemn, in advance, every thing that savors of the Prussian system, because that system is sustained by arbitrary power.

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But allowing all these charges against the Prussian system to be true, there were still two reasons why I was not deterred from examining it.

In the first place, the evils imputed to it were easily and naturally separable from the good which it was not denied to possess. If the Prussian schoolmaster has better methods of teaching reading, writing, grammar, geography, arithmetic, &c., so that, in half the time, he produces greater and better results, surely we may copy his modes of teaching these elements without adopting his notions of passive obedience to government, or of blind adherence to the articles of a church. By the ordinance of nature, the human faculties are substantially the same all over the world, and hence the best means for their development and growth in one place, must be substantially the best for their development and growth everywhere. The spirit which shall control the action of these faculties when matured, which shall train them to self-reliance or to abject submission, which shall lead them to refer all questions to the standard of reason or to that of authority,—this spirit is wholly distinct and distinguishable from the manner in which the faculties themselves ought to be trained; and we may avail ourselves of all improved methods in the earlier processes, without being contaminated by the abuses which may be made to follow them. The best style of teaching arithmetic or spelling has no necessary or natural connection with the doctrine of hereditary right; and an accomplished lesson in geography or grammar commits the human intellect to no particular dogma in religion.

In the second place, if Prussia can pervert the benign influences of education to the support of arbitrary power, we surely can employ them for the support and perpetuation of republican institutions. A national spirit of liberty can be cultivated more easily than a national spirit of bondage; and if it may be made one of the great prerogatives of education to perform the unnatural and unholy work of making slaves, then surely it must be one of the noblest instrumentalities for rearing a nation of freemen. If a moral power over the understandings and affections of the people may be turned to evil, may it not also be employed for the highest good?

Besides, a generous and impartial mind does not ask whence a thing comes, but what it is. Those who, at the present day, would reject an improvement because of the place of its origin, belong to the same school of bigotry with those who inquired if any good could come out of Nazareth; and what infinite blessings would the world have lost had that party been punished by success! Throughout my whole tour, no one principle has been more frequently exemplified than this,—that wherever I have found the best institutions,—educational, reformatory, charitable, penal, or otherwise,—there I have always found the greatest desire to know how similar institutions were administered among ourselves; and where I have found the worst, there I have found most of the spirit of self-complacency, and even an offensive disinclination to hear of better methods.

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All the subjects I have enumerated were taught in all the schools I visited, whether in city or country, for the rich or for the poor. In the lowest school in the smallest and obscurest village, or for the poorest class in overcrowded cities; in the schools connected with pauper establishments, with houses of correction, or with prisons,—in all these, there was a teacher of *mature age*, of simple, unaffected, and decorous manners, benevolent in his expression, kind and genial in his intercourse with the young, and of such attainments and resources as qualified him not only to lay down the abstract principles of the above range of studies, but, by familiar illustration and apposite example, to commend them to the attention of the children.

I speak of the teachers whom I saw, and with whom I had more or less of personal intercourse; and, after some opportunity for the observation of public assemblies or bodies of men, I do not hesitate to say, that if those teachers were brought together, in one body, I believe they would form as dignified, intelligent, benevolent-looking a company of men as could be collected from the same amount of population in any country. They were alike free from arrogant pretension and from the affectation of humility. It has been often remarked, both in England and in this country, that the nature of a school-teacher's occupation exposes him, in some degree, to overbearing manners, and to dogmatism in the statement of his opinions. Accustomed to the exercise of supreme authority, moving among those who are so much his inferiors in point of attainment, perhaps it is proof of a very well-balanced mind, if he keeps himself free from assumption in opinion and haughtiness of demeanor. Especially are such faults or vices apt to spring up in weak or ill-furnished minds. A teacher who cannot rule by love, must do so by fear. A teacher who cannot supply material for the activity of his pupils' minds by his talent, must put down that activity by force. A teacher who cannot answer all the questions and solve all the doubts of a scholar as they arise, must assume an awful and mysterious air, and must expound in oracles, which themselves need more explanation than the original difficulty. When a teacher knows much, and is master of his whole subject, he can afford to be modest and unpretending. But when the head is the only text-book, and the teacher has not been previously prepared, he must, of course, have a small library. Among all the Prussian and Saxon teachers whom I saw, there were not half a dozen instances to remind one of those unpleasant characteristics,—what Lord Bacon would call the '*idol* of the tribe,' or profession,—which sometimes degrade the name and disparage the sacred calling of a teacher. Generally speaking, there seemed to be a strong love for the employment, always a devotion to duty, and a profound conviction of the importance and sacredness of the office they filled. The only striking instance of disingenuousness or attempt at deception, which I saw, was that of a teacher who looked over the manuscript books of a large class of his scholars, selected the best, and, bringing it to me, said, 'In seeing one you see all.

Whence came this beneficent order of men, scattered over the whole country, molding the character of its people, and carrying them forward in a career of civilization more rapidly than any other people in the world are now advancing! This is a question which can be answered only by giving an account of the Seminaries for Teachers.

From the year 1820 to 1830 or 1835, it was customary, in all accounts of Prussian education, to mention the number of these Seminaries for Teachers. This item of information has now become unimportant, as there are seminaries sufficient to supply the wants of the whole country. The stated term of residence at these seminaries is three years. Lately, and in a few places, a class of preliminary institutions has sprung up,—institutions where pupils are received in order to determine whether they are fit to become candidates to be candidates. As a pupil of the seminary is liable to be set aside for incompetency, even after a three years' course of study; so the pupils of these preliminary institutions, after having gone through with a shorter course, are liable to be set aside for incompetency to become competent.

Let us look for a moment at the guards and securities which, in that country, environ this sacred calling. In the first place, the teacher's profession holds such a high rank in public estimation, that none who have failed in other employments or departments of business, are encouraged to look upon school-keeping as an ultimate resource. Those, too, who, from any cause, despair of success in other departments of business or walks of life, have very slender prospects in looking forward to this. These considerations exclude at once all that inferior order of men who, in some countries, constitute the main body of the teachers. Then come,—though only in some parts of Prussia,—these preliminary schools, where those who wish eventually to become teachers, go, in order to have their natural qualities and adaptation for school-keeping tested; for it must be borne in mind that a man may have the most unexceptionable character, may be capable of mastering all the branches of study, may even be able to make most brilliant recitations from day to day; and yet, from some coldness or repulsiveness of manner, from harshness of voice, from some natural defect in his person or in one of his senses, he may be adjudged an unsuitable model or archetype for children to be conformed to, or to grow by; and hence he may be dismissed at the end of his probationary term of six months. At one of these preparatory schools, which I visited, the list of subjects at the examination,—a part of which I saw,—was divided into two classes, as follows:—1. Readiness in thinking, German language, including orthography and composition, history, description of the earth, knowledge of nature, thorough bass, calligraphy, drawing. 2. Religion, knowledge of the Bible, knowledge of nature, mental arithmetic, singing, violin-playing, and readiness or facility in speaking. The examination in all the branches of the first class was conducted in writing. To test a pupil's readiness in thinking, for instance, several topics for composition are given out, and, after the lapse of a certain number of minutes, whatever has been written must be handed in to the examiners. So questions in arithmetic are given, and the time occupied by the pupils in solving them, is a test of their quickness of thought, or power of commanding their own resources. This facility, or faculty, is considered of great importance in a teacher.[*] In the second class of subjects the pupils were examined *orally*. Two entire days were occupied in examining a class of thirty pupils, and only twenty-one were admitted to the seminary school;—that is, only about two-thirds were considered to be eligible *to become eligible*, as teachers, after three years' further study. Thus, in this first process, the chaff is winnowed out, and not a few of the lighter grains of the wheat.

It is to be understood that those who enter the seminary directly, and without this preliminary trial, have already studied, under able masters in the Common Schools, at least all the branches I have above described. The first two of the three years, they expend mainly in reviewing and expanding their elementary knowledge. The German language is studied in its relations to rhetoric and logic, and as æsthetic literature; arithmetic is carried out into algebra and mixed mathematics; geography into commerce and manufactures, and into a knowledge of the various botanical and zoological productions of the different quarters of the globe; linear drawing into perspective and machine drawing, and the drawing from models of all kinds, and from objects in nature, &c. The theory and practice, not only of vocal, but of instrumental music, occupy much time. Every pupil must play on the violin; most of them play on the organ, and some on other instruments. I recollect seeing a Normal class engaged in learning the principles of Harmony. The teacher first explained the principles on which they were to proceed. He then wrote a bar of music upon the blackboard, and called upon a pupil to write such notes for another part or accompaniment, as would make *harmony* with the first. So he would write a bar with certain intervals, and then require a pupil to write another, with such intervals as, according to the principles of musical science, would correspond with the first. A thorough course of reading on the subject of education is undertaken, as well as a more general course. Bible history is almost committed to memory. Connected with all the seminaries for teachers are large Model or Experimental Schools. During the last part of the course much of the students' time is spent in these schools. At first they go in and look on in silence, while an accomplished teacher is instructing a class. Then they themselves commence teaching under the eye of such a teacher. At last they teach a class alone, being responsible for its proficiency, and for its condition as to order, &c., at the end of a week or other period. During the whole course, there are lectures, discussions, compositions, &c., on the theory and practice of teaching. The essential qualifications of a candidate for the office, his attainments, and the spirit of devotion and of religious fidelity in which he should enter upon his work; the modes of teaching the different branches; the motive-powers to be applied to the minds of children; dissertations upon the different natural dispositions of children, and, consequently, the different ways of addressing them, of securing their confidence and affection, and of winning them to a love of learning and a sense of duty; and especially the sacredness of the teacher's profession,—the idea that he stands, for the time being, in the place of a parent, and therefore that a parent's responsibilities rest upon him, that the most precious hopes of society are committed to his charge, and that on him depends, to a great extent, the temporal and perhaps the future well-being of hundreds of his fellow-creatures,—these are the conversations, the ideas, the feelings, amid which the candidate for teaching spends his probationary years. This is the daily atmosphere he breathes. These are the sacred, elevating, invigorating influences constantly pouring in upon his soul. Hence, at the expiration of his course, he leaves the seminary to enter upon his profession, glowing with enthusiasm for the noble cause he has espoused, and strong in his resolves to perform its manifold and momentous duties.

Here, then, is the cause of the worth and standing of the teachers, whom I had the pleasure and the honor to see. As a body of men, their character is more enviable than that of either of the three, so-called, 'professions. They have more benevolence and self-sacrifice than the legal or medical, while they have less of sanctimoniousness and austerity, less of indisposition to enter into all the innocent amusements and joyous feelings of childhood, than the clerical. They are not unmindful of what belongs to men while they are serving God; nor of the duties they owe to this world while preparing for another.

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[*] The above described is a very common method of examining in the gymnasia and higher seminaries of Prussia. Certain sealed subjects for an exercise are given to the students; they are then locked up in a room, each by himself, and at the expiration of a given time, they are enlarged, and it is seen what each one has been able to make out of his faculties.

On reviewing a period of six weeks, the greater part of which I spent in visiting schools in the north and middle of Prussia and in Saxony (excepting, of course, the time occupied in going from place to place), entering the schools to hear the first recitation in the morning, and remaining till the last was completed at night, I call to mind three things about which I cannot be mistaken. In some of my opinions and inferences I may have erred, but of the following facts there can be no doubt:

1. During all this time, I never saw a teacher hearing a lesson of any kind (excepting a reading or spelling lesson), *with a book in his hand*

2. I never saw a teacher *sitting* while hearing a recitation.

3. Though I saw hundreds of schools, and thousands,—I think I may say, within bounds, tens of thousands of pupils,—*I never saw one child undergoing punishment, or arraigned for misconduct. I never saw one child in tears from having been punished, or from fear of being punished.*

During the above period, I witnessed exercises in geography, ancient and modern; in the German language,—from the explanation of the simplest words up to belles-lettres disquisitions, with rules for speaking and writing;—in arithmetic, algebra, geometry, surveying, and trigonometry; in book-keeping; in civil history, ancient and modern; in natural philosophy; in botany and zoology; in mineralogy, where there were hundreds of specimens; in the endless variety of the exercises in thinking, knowledge of nature, of the world, and of society; in Bible history and in Bible knowledge;—and, as I before said, in no one of these cases did I see a teacher with a book in his hand. His book,—his books,—his library, was in his head. Promptly, without pause, without hesitation, from the rich resources of his own mind, he brought forth whatever the occasion demanded. I remember calling one morning at a country school in Saxony, where every thing about the premises, and the appearance, both of teacher and children, indicated very narrow pecuniary circumstances. As I entered, the teacher was just ready to commence a lesson or lecture on French history. He gave not only the events of a particular period in the history of France, but mentioned, as he proceeded, all the contemporary sovereigns of neighboring nations. The ordinary time for a lesson here, as elsewhere, was an hour. This was somewhat longer, for, toward the close, the teacher entered upon a train of thought from which it was difficult to break off, and rose to a strain of eloquence which it was delightful to hear. The scholars were all absorbed in attention. They had paper, pen, and ink before them, and took brief notes of what was said. When the lesson touched upon contemporary events in other nations,—which, as I suppose, had been the subject of previous lessons,—the pupils were questioned concerning them. A small text-book of history was used by the pupils, which they studied at home.

I ought to say further, that I generally visited schools without guide, or letter of introduction,—presenting myself at the door, and asking the favor of admission. Though I had a general order from the Minister of Public Instruction, commanding all schools, gymnasia, and universities in the kingdom to be opened for my inspection, yet I seldom exhibited it, or spoke of it,—at least not until I was about departing. I preferred to enter as a private individual, an uncommended visitor.

I have said that I saw no teacher *sitting* in his school. Aged or young, all stood. Nor did they stand apart and aloof in sullen dignity. They mingled with their pupils, passing rapidly from one side of the class to the other, animating, encouraging, sympathizing, breathing life into less active natures, assuring the timid, distributing encouragement and endearment to all. The looks of the Prussian teacher often have the expression and vivacity of an actor in a play. He gesticulates like an orator. His body assumes all the attitudes, and his face puts on all the variety of expression, which a public speaker would do if haranguing a large assembly on a topic vital to their interests.

It may seem singular, and perhaps to some almost ludicrous, that a teacher in expounding the first rudiments of handwriting, in teaching the difference between a hair-stroke and a ground-stroke, or how an *l* may be turned into a *b*, or a *u* into a *w*, should be able to work himself up into an oratorical fervor; should attitudinize, and gesticulate, and stride from one end of the class to the other, and appear in every way to be as intensely engaged as an advocate when arguing an important cause to a jury;—but, strange as it may seem, it is nevertheless true; and before five minutes of such a lesson had elapsed, I have seen the children wrought up to an excitement proportionally intense, hanging upon the teacher's lips, catching every word he says, and evincing great elation or depression of spirits, as they had or had not succeeded in following his instructions. So I have seen the same rhetorical vehemence on the part of the teacher, and the same interest and animation on the part of the pupils, during a lesson on the original sounds of the letters,—that is, the difference between the long and the short sound of a vowel, or the different ways of opening the mouth in sounding the consonants *b* and *p*. The zeal of the teacher enkindles the scholars. He charges them with his own electricity to the point of explosion. Such a teacher has no idle, mischievous, whispering children around him, nor any occasion for the rod. He does not make desolation of all the active and playful impulses of childhood, and call it peace; nor, to secure stillness among his scholars, does he find it necessary to ride them with the nightmare of fear. I rarely saw a teacher put questions with his lips alone. He seems so much interested in his subject (though he might have been teaching the same lesson for the hundredth or five hundredth time), that his whole body is in motion;—eyes, arms, limbs, all contributing to the impression he desires to make; and, at the end of an hour, both he and his pupils come from the work all glowing with excitement.

Suppose a lawyer in one of our courts were to plead an important cause before a jury, but instead of standing and extemporizing, and showing by his gestures, and by the energy and ardor of his whole manner, that he felt an interest in his theme, instead of rising with his subject and coruscating with flashes of genius and wit, he should plant himself lazily down in a chair, read from some old book which scarcely a member of the panel could fully understand, and, after droning away for an hour, should leave them, without having distinctly impressed their minds with one fact, or led them to form one logical conclusion;—would it be any wonder if he left half of them joking with each other, or asleep;—would it be any wonder,—provided he were followed on the other side by an advocate of brilliant parts, of elegant diction and attractive manner,—who should pour sunshine into the darkest recesses of the case,—if he lost not only his own reputation, but the cause of his client also?

These incitements and endearments of the teacher, this personal ubiquity, as it were, among all the pupils in the class, prevailed much more, as the pupils were younger. Before the older classes, the teacher's manner became calm and didactic. The habit of attention being once formed, nothing was left for subsequent years or teachers, but the easy task of maintaining it. Was there ever such a comment as this on the practice of hiring cheap teachers because the school is young, or incompetent ones because it is backward!

In Prussia and in Saxony, as well as in Scotland, the power of commanding and retaining the attention of a class is held to be a *sine qua non* in a teacher's qualifications. If he has not talent, skill, vivacity, or resources of anecdote and wit, sufficient to arouse and retain the attention of his pupils during the accustomed period of recitation, he is deemed to have mistaken his calling, and receives a significant hint to change his vocation.

Take a group of little children to a toy-shop, and witness their outbursting eagerness and delight. They need no stimulus of badges or prizes to arrest or sustain their attention; they need no quickening of their faculties by rod or ferule. To the exclusion of food and sleep they will push their inquiries, until shape, color, quality, use, substance, both external and internal, of the objects around them, are exhausted; and each child will want the show-man wholly to himself. But in all the boundless variety and beauty of nature's works; in that profusion and prodigality of charms with which the Creator has adorned and enriched every part of his creation; in the delights of affection; in the ecstatic joys of benevolence; in the absorbing interest which an unsophisticated conscience instinctively takes in all questions of right and wrong;—in all these, is there not as much to challenge and command the attention of a little child, as in the curiosities of a toy-shop? When as much of human art and ingenuity shall have been expended upon teaching as upon toys, there will be less difference between the cases.

The third circumstance I mentioned above was the beautiful relation of harmony and affection which subsisted between teacher and pupils. I cannot say that the extraordinary fact I have mentioned was not the result of chance or accident. Of the probability of that, others must judge. I can only say that, during all the time mentioned, I never saw a blow struck, I never heard a sharp rebuke given, I never saw a child in tears, nor arraigned at the teacher's bar for any alleged misconduct. On the contrary, the relation seemed to be one of duty first, and then affection, on the part of the teacher,—of affection first, and then duty, on the part of the scholar. The teacher's manner was better than parental, for it had a parent's tenderness and vigilance, without the foolish dotings or indulgences to which parental affection is prone. I heard no child ridiculed, sneered at, or scolded, for making a mistake. On the contrary, whenever a mistake was made, or there was a want of promptness in giving a reply, the expression of the teacher was that of grief and disappointment, as though there had been a failure, not merely to answer the question of a master, but to comply with the expectations of a friend. No child was disconcerted, disabled, or bereft of his senses, through fear. Nay, generally, at the ends of the answers, the teacher's practice is to encourage him with the exclamation, 'good,' 'right,' 'wholly right,' &c., or to check him, with his slowly and painfully articulated 'no;' and this is done with a tone of voice that marks every degree of *plus* and *minus* in the scale of approbation and regret. When a difficult question has been put to a young child, which tasks all his energies, the teacher approaches him with a mingled look of concern and encouragement; he stands before him, the light and shade of hope and fear alternately crossing his countenance; he lifts his arms and turns his body,—as a bowler who has given a wrong direction to his bowl will writhe his person to bring the ball back upon its track;—and finally, if the little wrestler with difficulty triumphs, the teacher felicitates him upon his success, perhaps seizes and shakes him by the hand, in token of congratulation; and, when the difficulty has been really formidable, and the effort triumphant, I have seen the teacher catch up the child in his arms and embrace him, as though he were not able to contain his joy. At another time, I have seen a teacher actually clap his hands with delight at a bright reply; and all this has been done so naturally and so unaffectedly as to excite no other feeling in the residue of the children than a desire, by the same means, to win the same caresses. What person worthy of being called by the name, or of sustaining the sacred relation of a parent, would not give any thing, bear any thing, sacrifice any thing, to have his children, during eight or ten years of the period of their childhood, surrounded by circumstances, and breathed upon by sweet and humanizing influences, like these!"

The Rev. Egerton Ryerson, D. D., Chief Superintendent of Schools, in a "*Report on a System of Public Elementary Instruction for Upper Canada*," after quoting the above passages from Mr. Mann's report, remarks:

"In the above summary and important statements on this subject, by the able Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, I fully concur, with two slight exceptions. In one instance I did see a boy in tears (in Berlin) when removed to a lower class on account of negligence in his school preparations. I did see one or two old men sitting *occasionally* in school. With these exceptions, my own similar inquiries and experience of nearly three months in Southern and Western, as well as Northern and Middle Germany, and I might add a longer period of like investigations in Switzerland, Holland, Belgium and France—enable me not only to subscribe to the statements of the Hon. Mr. Mann, but would enable me, were it necessary, to illustrate them by various details of visits to individual schools."

Professor Lemuel Stephens, now of Girard College of Orphans, Philadelphia, in a "*Letter addressed to Hon. F. R. Shunk, Superintendent of Common Schools in Pennsylvania,*" from Berlin, in 1843, remarks:

"To determine absolutely the influence which teachers' seminaries have had upon the state of popular education in Germany, would be a matter of great difficulty, owing to the gradual growth of these institutions. One thing is certain, that the improvement of the schools has followed, hand in hand, the multiplication and improvement of the seminaries. Perhaps the value of these institutions can be shown in no light so advantageously, as by comparing the class of common school teachers in Germany, at the present moment, with the same class in England and America. In this country one is struck with the zeal and common spirit which a common education has imparted to the whole body. They have been for three or four years under the instruction of men practically and scientifically acquainted with the best principles of teaching; and what is an indispensable part of their preparation, they have had the opportunity of testing the value, and of becoming familiar with the application of these principles in practice. During the latter part of their course they have been accustomed, under the eye of their teachers, to instruct a school of children, by which means the art and the theory have kept pace with each other. Some knowledge of the human mind, and some just conception of the great problem of education which they are engaged in solving, inspires them with self-respect, with earnestness and love of their profession. Once raised above the idea that education consists alone in drilling children in a few useful accomplishments, a sense of the dignity of the work of operating on, and forming other minds, causes them to overlook the humble outward conditions of a village school, and fortifies them against the seductions of false ambition.

Leaving out of the question the great immediate benefit of these seminaries in fitting teachers better to fill their office, I believe that the professional spirit, the *esprit du corps*, which they create, is productive of results which are alone sufficient to recommend these institutions. It is this common spirit which secures the progress of the young teacher after he has entered into active service, and saves him from the besetting sin of rusting into a mechanical routine, by keeping up a lively interchange of opinions, and making him acquainted with the successes and improvements of other teachers. The means for this intercourse, are conferences and periodicals of education. In every German city, in which I have made the inquiry, I have learned that the teachers from the different schools are accustomed to come together, at stated times, for the purpose of mutual improvement: even in the villages of Hesse, and the mountainous part of Saxony, I found that the teachers, from villages miles apart, held their monthly conferences for debate and lecture.

In Germany there are no less than thirty periodicals devoted exclusively to education. In these all questions of interest to teachers are discussed; the best method of instructing explained, all new school books noticed and criticised: the arrangements and organizations of distinguished schools described, and accounts given from time to time of the progress of education in other states. The General School Gazette, which has particularly attracted my attention, has a list of more than one hundred regular contributors. The journals are open to all teachers to make known their experience, or to ask for information. The able director of the seminary in this city, who is at the same time the conductor of one of these periodicals, informs me that one or more of them finds its way to every common school teacher. They are furnished so low that he can generally afford to take them, or if not, they are taken by the district for his benefit. By these means an active spirit of inquiry is kept up; the improvements of individuals become the property of all; the obscure village teacher feels that he is a member of a large and respectable class, engaged in the great work of human improvement; and love and zeal for his profession are enkindled. There is union, sympathy, generous emulation and mutual improvement. Among the members of a profession, there is a common principle of life. It is a type of organic life, which contains within itself the principle of development and growth.

A valuable ordinance passed in Prussia, in 1826, and renewed in 1846, requires a director of a seminary to travel about once a year, and visit a certain part of the schools within his circuit. He makes himself acquainted with the state of the school, listens to the instruction given, takes part himself in the same, and gives to the teacher such hints for improvement as his observation may suggest. The results of his yearly visits he presents in the form of a report to the school authorities of the province. This occasional visitation is very useful in clearing up the dark corners of the land, correcting abuses, and giving an impulse, from time to time, to teachers, who might otherwise sink into apathy and neglect. To render the efficacy of the seminaries more complete, it is provided that at the end of three years after leaving the seminary, the young teachers shall return to pass a second examination. And further, by an ordinance in 1826, it is provided, 'To the end, that the beneficial influence of the seminary may extend itself to those teachers already established, who either require further instruction, or who in their own cultivation and skill in office do not advance, perhaps even recede; it is required that such teachers be recalled into the seminary for a shorter or longer time, as may be needful for them, in order, either to pass through a whole methodical course, or to practice themselves in particular departments of instruction.' By this organization it is very easy to see that the whole system of popular instruction is brought under the influence of the most able teachers; their skill is made to tell upon the character of the class; and the assurance is given that the work of education is advancing surely and consequently toward perfection.

It is only by the distinct division of the objects of human industry and knowledge, into separate arts and sciences, that their advancement can be insured. The necessity for the division of labor in the mechanic arts is well enough understood. A necessity for this division, in intellectual pursuits, exists in a by no means less degree. So long as the science of education depends for its development upon the casual contributions of men of all professions, without being made the business of any, it must grope its way hither and thither by the light of occasional flashes, instead of being guided on by a steady flame.

The views of certain men on education are known among us, but so far is pedagogics from being cultivated as a science, we feel ourselves as yet hardly authorized to use the word. I am far from denying that we have many very good teachers; but they stand separate and alone. Their influence rarely extends beyond the sphere of their own schools. Their experience has furnished them with excellent practical rules for their own procedure, but these rules have perhaps never been expressed in words, much less their truth demonstrated by a reduction of the same to scientific principles. They are content to be known as possessing the mysterious talent of a skillful teacher, and their wisdom dies with them. It is owing to the isolated position in which teachers by profession find themselves, that the didactic skill they may have acquired, even when it rises above the character of a blind faculty, and is founded on the enlightened conclusions of science, still remains almost without influence on the wrong ideas in education which may be in vogue around them. To quote a remark of Dr. Harnisch: 'we have had, now and then, capable teachers without possessing seminaries: we still find such *singly* in states which yet have no seminaries, but it can not be denied that seminaries are most effectual levers for elevating the condition of common schools, and such they have sufficiently proved themselves to be in latter years.'"

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"How far may we avail ourselves of the German plan of popular education? It will be borne in mind, that the Prussian system is so far voluntary that it is left entirely to the parent where, and in what manner, his child shall be educated, only requiring that the years, from six till fourteen, shall be devoted to instruction, and that a certain amount of knowledge shall be obtained. The Swiss republics have placed their public schools on the same basis that the German states have done, their laws are essentially the same, and teachers have therefore, there as well as in Germany, the character of public servants. The great feature of the Prussian system, which it is both suitable and highly desirable for us to imitate, is that which I have already described, namely: the provision therein made for the education of common school teachers. This appears to me the only radical reform, and the only means of putting public education in a steady and consequent train of improvement.

To apply to ourselves the advantages which I have already stated as flowing from this measure—It will raise the employment of teaching among us to a regular profession, and introduce generally consistent and rational methods of instructing. It will create among teachers, devotion to their office, and a desire for co-operation. This desire will manifest itself in the organization of unions for conference, and in the establishment and support of many periodicals. The higher character of teachers, and the improved state of the schools. will bring them respect, and a better remuneration for their services. The higher value set upon education, the immense contrast between the efficacy of a constant, and that of a half-yearly school, and I must add, the *impossibility of getting good teachers for the latter*, will gradually do away with this great evil under which our school system suffers. The permanent settlement of teachers, rendering much less the annual accession to the profession necessary to keep the schools supplied, will, as I have shown, obviate all difficulty on the score of numbers. The science of the human mind and its cultivation, this vitally important branch of a nation's literature, will be developed among us, and its blessings will be richly manifested in the better cultivation of all the sciences and arts of life.

Such is a scanty outline of the benefits which the experience of other countries, and reason, show us will follow the proper education of our teachers. I do not mean to say that Germany has already realized all these benefits. It is important to observe that the reform in education in this country, goes out from the government, not from the people themselves, who rather passively submit to its operation, than actively co-operate in giving it efficacy. This, with other grounds before stated, necessarily make popular education in Germany productive of less results than in our own country. * *

In the establishment of teachers' seminaries. their utility and success will depend entirely upon their appropriate and perfect organization. False economy has often attempted to provide for the education of primary teachers, by making the seminary an appendage to a high school, or an academy. Thirty years ago this arrangement was not uncommon in Germany; and later the experiment has been tried in the State of New York. * * If it were needed, to strengthen the evidence of the inefficiency of this system, I might easily quote the testimony of the most able teachers of Germany to this effect. Perhaps no department of education requires a more peculiar treatment, and more calls for the undivided zeal and energy of those who have the conduct of it, than the preparation of teachers.

Every thing depends on making the seminaries for teachers, separate and independent establishments, with a careful provision for a thorough, theoretical and practical preparation for all the duties of the common school. In the experiment of introducing teachers' seminaries into our country, there is a danger that we shall be too sparing in the number of teachers employed in conducting them. Seminaries conducted by one or two teachers can not be otherwise than imperfect; and while but little good would come from them, there is great danger that their failure would serve to bring the cause into disrepute."

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION
IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS
OF GERMANY.

Rev. Calvin E. Stowe, D. D., in 1839, while Professor of Biblical Literature in Lane Seminary, Cincinnati, Ohio, visited Europe, and on his return submitted to the General Assembly of Ohio, in December, 1839, a "Report on Elementary Public Instruction in Europe," in which he thus describes the course of instruction pursued in the Primary Schools of Germany, particularly of Prussia and Wirtemburg.

The whole course comprises eight years, and includes children from the ages of six to fourteen; and it is divided into four parts, of two years each. It is a first principle, that the children be well accommodated as to house and furniture. The school-room must be well constructed, the seats convenient, and the scholars made comfortable, and kept interested. The younger pupils are kept at school but four hours in the day—two in the morning and two in the evening, with a recess at the close of each hour. The older, six hours, broken by recesses as often as is necessary. Most of the school-houses have a bathing-place, a garden, and a mechanic's shop attached to them, to promote the cleanliness and health of the children, and to aid in mechanical and agricultural instruction. It will be seen by the schedule which follows, that a vast amount of instruction is given during these eight years; and lest it should seem that so many branches must confuse the young mind, and that they must necessarily be but partially taught, I will say, in the outset, that the industry, skill, and energy of teachers regularly trained to their business, and depending entirely upon it; the modes of teaching; the habit of always finishing whatever is begun; the perfect method which is preserved; the entire punctuality and regularity of attendance on the part of the scholars; and other things of this kind, facilitate a rapidity and exactness of acquisition and discipline, which may well seem incredible to those who have never witnessed it.

The greatest care is taken that acquisition do not go beyond discipline; and that the taxation of mind be kept entirely and clearly within the constitutional capacity of mental and physical endurance. The studies must never weary, but always interest; the appetite for knowledge must never be cloyed, but be kept always sharp and eager. These purposes are gradually aided by the frequent interchange of topics, and by lively conversational exercises. Before the child is even permitted to learn his letters, he is under conversational instruction, frequently for six months or a year; and then a single week is sufficient to introduce him into intelligible and accurate plain reading.

Every week is systematically divided, and every hour appropriated. The scheme for the week is written on a large sheet of paper, and fixed in a prominent part of the school-room, so that every scholar knows what his business will be for every hour in the week; and the plan thus marked out is rigidly followed.

Through all the parts of the course there are frequent reviews and repetitions, that the impressions left on the mind may be distinct, lively, and permanent. The exercises of the day are always commenced and closed with a short prayer; and the Bible and hymn-book are the first volumes put into the pupils' hands; and these books they always retain and keep in constant use during the whole progress of their education.

The general outline of the eight years' course is nearly as follows:

I. *First part, of two years, including children from six to eight years old; four principal branches, namely:*

1. Logical exercises, or oral teaching in the exercise of the powers of observation and expression, including religious instruction and the singing of hymns.
2. Elements of reading.
3. Elements of writing.
4. Elements of number, or arithmetic.

II. *Second part, of two years, including children from eight to ten years old—seven principal branches, namely:*

1. Exercises in reading.
2. Exercises in writing.
3. Religious and moral instruction, in select Bible narratives.
4. Language, or grammar.
5. Numbers, or arithmetic.
6. Doctrine of space and form, or geometry.
7. Singing by note, or elements of music.

III. *Third part, of two years, including children from ten to twelve years old—eight principal branches, namely*:

1. Exercises in reading and elocution.
2. Exercises in ornamental writing, preparatory to drawing.
3. Religious instruction in the connected Bible history.
4. Language, or grammar, with parsing.
5. Real instruction, or knowledge of Nature and the external world, including the first elements of the sciences and the arts of life—of geography and history.
6. Arithmetic continued through fractions and the rules of proportion.
7. Geometry—doctrine of magnitudes and measures.
8. Singing and science of vocal and instrumental music.

IV. *Fourth part, of two years, including children from ten to twelve years old—six principal branches, namely:*

1. Religious instruction in the religious observation of Nature; the life and discourses of Jesus Christ; the history of the Christian religion, in connection with the contemporary civil history; and the doctrines of Christianity.
2. Knowledge of the world, and of mankind, including civil society, elements of law, agriculture, mechanic arts, manufactures, &c.
3. Language, and exercises in composition.
4. Application of arithmetic and the mathematics to the business of life, including surveying and civil engineering.
5. Elements of drawing.
6. Exercises in singing, and the science of music.

We subjoin a few specimens of the mode of teaching under several of the above divisions.

I. *First part—children from six to eight years of age.*

1. Conversations between the teacher and pupils, intended to exercise the powers of observation and expression.

The teacher brings the children around him, and engages them in a familiar conversation with himself. He generally addresses them all together, and they all reply simultaneously; but, whenever necessary, he addresses an individual, and requires the individual to answer alone. He first directs their attention to the different objects in the school-room, their position, form, color, size, materials of which they are made, &c., and requires precise and accurate descriptions. He then requires them to notice the various objects that meet their eye in the way to their respective homes; and a description of these objects, and the circumstances under which they saw them, will form the subject of the next morning's lesson. Then the house in which they live, the shop in which their father works, the garden in which they walk, &c., will be the subject of the successive lessons; and in this way for six months or a year, the children are taught to study *things*, to use their own powers of observation, and speak with readiness and accuracy, before books are put into their hands at all. A few specimens will make the nature and utility of this mode of teaching perfectly obvious.

In a school in Berlin, a boy has assigned him for a lesson, a description of the remarkable objects in certain directions from the school-house, which is situated in Little Cathedral street. He proceeds as follows: "When I come out of the school-house into Little Cathedral street, and turn to the right, I soon pass on my left hand the Maria Place, the Gymnasium, and the Anklam Gate. When I come out of Little Cathedral street, I see on my left hand the White Parade Place, and within that, at a little distance, the beautiful statue of Frederick the Great, King of Prussia. It is made of white marble, and stands on a pedestal of variegated marble, and is fenced in with an iron railing. From here, I have on my right a small place, which is a continuation of the Parade Place; and at the end of this, near the wall, I see St. Peter's Church, or the Wall-street Church, as it is sometimes called. This church has a green yard before it, planted with trees, which is called the Wall Church Yard. St. Peter's Church is the oldest church in the city; it has a little round tower, which looks green, because it is mostly covered with copper, which is made green by exposure to the weather. When I go out of the school-house to the lower part of Little Cathedral street, by the Coal-market, through Shoe street and Carriage street, I come to the Castle. The Castle is a large building, with two small towers, and is built around a square yard, which is called the Castle-yard. In the Castle there are two churches, and the King and his Ministers of State, and the Judges of the Supreme Court, and the Consistory of the Church, hold their meetings there. From the Coal-market, I go through Shoe street to the Hay-market, and adjoining this is the New-market, which was formed after St. Nicholas's Church was burnt, which formerly stood in that place. Between the Hay-market and the New-market is the City Hall, where the officers and magistrates of the city hold their meetings."

If a garden is given to a class for a lesson, they are asked the size of the garden; its shape, which they may draw on a slate with a pencil; whether there are trees in it; what the different parts of a tree are; what parts grow in the spring, and what parts decay in autumn, and what parts remain the same throughout the winter; whether any of the trees are fruit trees; what fruits they bear; when they ripen; how they look and taste; whether the fruit be wholesome or otherwise; whether it is prudent to eat much of it; what plants and roots there are in the garden, and what use is made of them; what flowers there are, and how they look, &c. The teacher may then read them the description of the garden of Eden in the second chapter of Genesis—sing a hymn with them, the imagery of which is taken from the fruits and blossoms of a garden, and explain to them how kind and bountiful God is, who gives us such wholesome plants and fruits, and such beautiful flowers for our nourishment and gratification.

The external heavens also make an interesting lesson. The sky—its appearance and color at different times; the clouds—their color, their varying form and movements; the sun—its rising and setting, its concealment by clouds, its warming the earth and giving it life and fertility, its great heat in summer, and the danger of being exposed to it unprotected; the moon—its appearance by night, full, gibbous, horned; its occasional absence from the heavens; the stars—their shining, difference among them, their number, distance from us, &c. In this connection the teacher may read to them the eighteenth and nineteenth Psalms, and other passages of Scripture of that kind, sing with them a hymn celebrating the glory of God in the creation, and enforce the moral bearing of such contemplations by appropriate remarks. A very common lesson is, the family and family duties, love to parents, love to brothers and sisters, concluding with appropriate passages from Scripture, and singing a family hymn.

2. Elements of reading.

After a suitable time spent in the exercises above described, the children proceed to learn the elements of reading. The first step is to exercise the organs of sound till they have perfect command of their vocal powers; and this, after the previous discipline in conversation and singing, is a task soon accomplished. They are then taught to utter distinctly all the vowel sounds. The characters or letters representing these sounds are then shown and described to them, till the form and power of each are distinctly impressed upon their memories. The same process is then gone through in respect to dipthongs and consonants. Last of all, after having acquired a definite and distinct view of the different sounds, and of the forms of the letters which respectively represent these sounds, they are taught the names of these letters, with the distinct understanding that the *name* of a letter and the *power* of a letter are two very different things.

They are now prepared to commence reading. The letters are printed in large form, on square cards; the class stands up before a sort of rack; the teacher holds the cards in his hand, places one upon the rack, and a conversation of this kind passes between him and his pupils: What letter is that? H. He places another on the rack. What letter is that? A. I now put these two letters together, thus, (moving the cards close together,) HA. What sound do these two letters signify? *Ha.* There is another letter. What letter is that? (putting it on the rack.) R. I now put this third letter to the other two, thus, HAR. What sound do the three letters make? *Har.* There is another letter. What is it? D. I join this letter to the other three, thus, HARD. What do they all make? *Hard.* Then he proceeds in the same way with the letters F-I-S-T; joins these four letters to the preceding four, HARD-FIST, and the pupils pronounce, *Hard-fist.* Then with the letters E and D, and joins these two to the preceeding eight, and the pupils pronounce, *Hard-fisted.* In this way they are taught to read words of any length, (for you may easily add to the above, N-E-S-S, and make *Hard-fistedness*)—the longest as easily as the shortest; and in fact they learn their letters; they learn to read words of one syllable and of several syllables, and to read in plain reading, by the same process, at the same moment. After having completed a sentence, or several sentences, with the cards and rack, they then proceed to read the same words and sentences in their spelling-books.

3. Elements of writing.

The pupils are first taught the right position of the arms and body in writing, the proper method of holding the pen, &c.; and are exercised on these points till their habits are formed correctly. The different marks used in writing are then exhibited to them, from the simple point or straight line, to the most complex figure. The variations of form and position which they are capable of assuming, and the different parts of which the complex figures are composed, are carefully described, and the student is taught to imitate them, beginning with the most simple; then the separate parts of the complex, then the joining of the several parts to a whole, with his pencil and slate. After having acquired facility in this exercise, he is prepared to write with his ink and paper. The copy is written upon the blackboard; the paper is laid before each member of the class, and each has his pen ready in his hand, awaiting the word of his teacher. If the copy be the simple point, or line | , the teacher repeats the syllable *one*, *one*, slowly at first, and with gradually increasing speed, and at each repetition of the sound the pupils write. In this way they learn to make the mark both correctly and rapidly. If the figure to be copied consists of two strokes, (thus, ɿ,) the teacher pronounces *one*, *two*—*one*, *two*, slowly at first, and then rapidly, as before; and the pupils make the first mark, and then the second, at the sound of each syllable, as before. If the figure consist of three strokes, (thus, ı,) the teacher pronounces *one*, *two*, *three*, and the pupils write as before. So when they come to make letters, the letter *a* has five strokes, thus, *a*. When that is the copy, the teacher says, deliberately, *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, *five*, and at the sound of each syllable the different strokes composing the letter are made; the speed of utterance is gradually accelerated, till finally the *a* is made very quickly, and at the same time neatly. By this method of teaching, a plain, neat, and quick hand, is easily acquired.

4. Elements of number, or arithmetic.

In this branch of instruction I saw no improvements in the mode of teaching not already substantially introduced into the best schools of our own country. I need not, therefore, enter into any details respecting them, excepting so far as to say that the student is taught to demonstrate, and perfectly to understand, the reason and nature of every rule before he uses it.

II. *Second part—children from eight to ten years of age.*

1. Exercises in reading.

The object of these exercises, in this part of the course, is to acquire the habit of reading with accuracy and readiness, with due regard to punctuation, and with reference to orthography. Sometimes the whole class read together, and sometimes an individual by himself, in order to accustom them to both modes of reading, and to secure the advantages of both. The sentence is first gone through with in the class, by distinctly spelling each word as it occurs; then by pronouncing each word distinctly without spelling it; a third time by pronouncing the words and mentioning the punctuation points as they occur. A fourth time, the sentence is read with the proper pauses indicated by the punctuation points, without mentioning them. Finally, the same sentence is read with particular attention to the intonations of the voice. Thus one thing is taken at a time, and pupils must become thorough in each as it occurs, before they proceed to the next. One great benefit of the class reading together is, that each individual has the same amount of exercise as if he were the only one under instruction, his attention can never falter, and no part of the lesson escapes him. A skillful teacher, once accustomed to this mode of reading, can as easily detect any fault, mispronunciation, or negligence, in any individual, as if that individual were reading alone.

The process is sometimes shortened, and the sentence read only three times, namely: "according to the words, according to the punctuation, according to the life."

2. Exercises in writing.

The pupils proceed to write copies in joining-hand, both large and small, the principles of teaching being essentially as described in the first part of the course. The great object here is, to obtain a neat, swift, business hand. Sometimes, without a copy, they write from the dictation of the teacher; and in most cases instruction in orthography and punctuation is combined with that in penmanship. They are also taught to make and mend their own pens, and in doing this to be economical of their quills.

3. Religious and moral instruction in select Bible narratives.

In this branch of teaching the methods are various, and the teacher adopts the method best adapted, in his judgement, to the particular circumstances of his own school, or to the special objects which he may have in view with a particular class. Sometimes he calls the class around him, and relates to them in his own language, some of the simple narratives of the Bible, or reads it to them in the words of the Bible itself, or directs one of the children to read it aloud; and then follows a friendly, familiar conversation between him and the class respecting the narrative; their little doubts are proposed and resolved, their questions put and answered, and the teacher unfolds the moral and religious instruction to be derived from the lesson, and illustrates it by appropriate quotations from the didactic and preceptive parts of the Scripture. Sometimes he explains to the class a particular virtue or vice, a truth or a duty; and after having clearly shown what it is, he takes some Bible narrative which strongly illustrates the point in discussion, reads it to them, and directs their attention to it, with special reference to the preceding narrative.

A specimen or two of these different methods will best show what they are.

(a) Read the narrative of the birth of Christ, as given by Luke, ii. 1–20. Observe, Christ was born for the salvation of men, so also for the salvation of children. Christ is the children's friend. Heaven rejoices in the good of men. Jesus, though so great and glorious, makes his appearance in a most humble condition. He is the teacher of the poor, as well as of the rich.

With these remarks compare other texts of the Bible.

Jno. iii. 16. "For God so loved the world that he gave his only begotten Son, that whosoever believeth in him should not perish, but have everlasting life."

1. Jno. iv. 9 "In this was manifested the love of God toward us; because that God sent his only begotten Son into the world, that we might live through him."

Mark x. 14, 15. "But when Jesus saw it he was much displeased, and said unto them, Suffer little children to come unto me, for of such is the kingdom of God. Verily I say unto you, whosoever shall not receive the kingdom of God as a little child, he shall not enter therein."

And the lesson is concluded with singing a Christmas hymn.

Jesus feeds five thousand men: Jno. vi. 1–14.

God can bless a little so that it will do great good.

Economy suffers nothing to be lost—other texts: Ps. cxlv. 15, 16.

"The eyes of all wait upon thee; and thou givest them their meat in due season."

"Thou openest thy hand, and satisfiest the desire of every living thing."

Matt. vi. 31–33. "Therefore take no thought, saying, what shall we eat? or, What shall we drink? or, Wherewithal shall we be clothed? (for after all these things do the Gentiles seek:) for your heavenly Father knoweth that ye have need of all these things. But seek ye first the kingdom of God, and his righteousness; and all these things shall be added unto you."

Story of Cain and Abel. Gen. iv. 1–16.

Remarks.—Two men may do the same thing externally, and yet the merit of their acts be very different. God looks at the heart. Be careful not to cherish envy or ill will in the heart. You know not to what crimes they may lead you. Remorse and misery of the fratricide—other texts. Matt. xv. 19. Heb. xi. 4. 1 Jno. iii. 12. Job. xxxiv. 32.

"For out of the heart proceed evil thoughts, murders, adulteries, fornications, thefts, false witness, blasphemies."

"By faith Abel offered unto God a more excellent sacrifice than Cain, by which he obtained witness that he was righteous, God testifying of his gifts: and by it he, being dead, yet speaketh."

"Not as Cain, who was of that wicked one, and slew his brother. And wherefore slew he him? Because his own works were evil, and his brother's righteous."

Story of Jesus in the temple. Luke ii. 41–52.

Jesus in his childhood was very fond of learning, (he heard and asked questions.) God's word was his delight, he understood what he heard and read, (men were astonished at his understanding and answers.) He carefully obeyed his parents, (he went with them and was subject to them.) And as he grew up, his good conduct endeared him to God and man. Other texts. Eph. vi. 1–4. Prov. iii. 1–4.

"Children! obey your parents in the Lord; for this is right. Honor thy father and mother, (which is the first commandment with promise.) that it may be well with thee, and thou mayest live long on the earth. And ye fathers! provoke not your children to wrath, but bring them up in the nurture and admonition of the Lord"

"My son, forget not my law; but let thine heart keep my commandments: For length of days, and long life, and peace, shall they add to thee. Let not mercy and truth forsake thee: bind them about thy neck; write them upon the table of thine heart: So shalt thou find favor and good understanding in the sight of God and man."

On the other mode of teaching, the teacher, for example, states the general truth, that God protects and rewards the good, and punishes the bad. In illustration of this he reads to them the narrative of Daniel in the lions' den, and the death which overtook his wicked accusers. Dan. vi. In illustration of the same truth, the escape of Peter, and the miserable death of his persecutor, Herod, may be read. Acts xii.

The teacher may impress upon the mind of his class, that diligence, scrupulous fidelity, and conscientious self-control, are the surest guarantees of success in life; and, in illustration of the statement, read the narrative of Joseph's conduct in his master's house in Egypt, and in the prison, and the results of it. Gen. xxxix. So, also, various incidents in the life of Jesus may be used to great advantage in illustrating different virtues.

It is recommended that the teacher employ, in his instructions, the translation of the Scriptures in general use among the people; but that he occasionally take the original Scriptures and read to the children, in his own translation, and sometimes use simple translations from different authors, that children may early learn to notice the diversities in different faithful translations, and see what they really amount to.

It is scarcely necessary to observe, that a teacher who understands his business, and is faithful to his trust, will scrupulously abstain from sectarian peculiarities, or from casting odium on the tenets of any of the Christian denominations. A man who has not magnanimity or enlargement of mind enough for this, is not fit to be employed as a teacher, even in the humblest branches of knowledge.

4. Language, or grammar.

The knowledge of the native tongue, the ability to use it with correctness, facility, and power, is justly regarded as one of the most important branches of common school instruction. It is the principal object of the *logical exercises*, or, as they may be justly termed, *the exercises in thinking and speaking*, already described as the first subject of study in the first part of the course, before the child has begun to use his book at all.

In this second part of the course, grammar is taught directly and scientifically, yet by no means in a dry and technical manner. On the contrary, technical terms are carefully avoided, till the child has become familiar with the nature and use of the things designated by them, and he is able to use them as the names of ideas which have a definite existence in his mind, and not as awful sounds, dimly shadowing forth some mysteries of science into which he has no power to penetrate.

The first object is to illustrate the different parts of speech, such as the noun, the verb, the adjective, the adverb; and this is done by engaging the pupil in conversation, and leading him to form sentences in which the particular parts of speech to be learned shall be the most important word, and directing his attention to the nature and use of the word in the place where he uses it. For example, let us suppose the nature and use of the adverb are to be taught. The teacher writes upon the blackboard the words "here, there, near," &c. He then says, "Children, we are all together in this room; by which of the words on the blackboard can you express this?" *Children.* "We are all *here.*" *Teacher.* "Now look out of the window and see the church; what can you say of the church with the second word on the blackboard?" *Children.* "The church is *there.*" *Teacher.* "The distance between us and the church is not great; how will you express this by a word on the blackboard?" *Children.* "The church is *near,*" The fact that these different words express the same sort of relations is then explained, and, accordingly, that they belong to the same class, or are the same part of speech. The variations of these words are next explained. "Children, you say the church is near, but there is a shop between us and the church; what will you say of the shop?" *Children.* "The shop is *nearer.*" *Teacher.* "But there is a fence between us and the shop. Now when you think of the distance between us, the shop and the fence, what will you say of the fence?" *Children.* "The fence is *nearest.*" So of other adverbs. "The lark sings *well.* Compare the singing of the lark with that of the canary bird. Compare the singing of the nightingale with that of the canary bird." After all the different sorts of adverbs and their variations have in this way been illustrated, and the pupils understand that all words of this kind are called *adverbs,* the definition of the adverb is given as it stands in the grammar, and the book is put into their hands to study the chapter on this topic. In this way the pupil understands what he is doing at every step of his progress, and his memory is never burdened with mere names, to which he can attach no definite meaning.

The mode of teaching the subsequent branches is founded on the same general principles, and it may not be necessary to give particular examples.

5. Numbers, or arithmetic.

6. Doctrine of space and form, or geometry.

7. Singing by note, or elements of music.

The method of teaching music has already been successfully introduced into our own State, and whoever visits the schools of Messrs. Mason or Solomon, in Cincinnati, will have a much better idea of what it is than any description can give; nor will any one who visits these schools entertain a doubt that all children from six to ten years of age, who are capable of learning to read, are capable of learning to sing, and that this branch of instruction can be introduced into all our common schools with the greatest advantage, not only to the comfort and discipline of the pupils, but also to their progress in their other studies.

The students are taught from the blackboard. The different sounds are represented by lines of different lengths, by letters, by figures, and by musical notes; and the pupils are thoroughly drilled on each successive principle before proceeding to the next.

III. *Third part, of two years—children from ten to twelve.*

1. Exercises in reading and elocution.

The objects of these exercises, in this part of the course, is to accustom the pupils to read in a natural and impressive manner, so as to bring the full force of the sentiment on those to whom they read. They are examined in modulation, emphasis, and the various intonations, and they often read sentences from the blackboard in which the various modulations are expressed by musical notes or curved lines.

The evils of drawling and monotone are prevented in the outset by the method of teaching, particularly the practice of the whole class reading together and keeping time. Short and pithy sentences, particularly the Book of Proverbs, are recommended as admirably adapted to exercises of this kind.

2. Ornamental writing, introductory to drawing.

The various kinds of ornamental letters are here practiced upon, giving accuracy to the eye and steadiness to the hand, preparatory to skill in drawing, which comes into the next part of the course. The pupils also practice writing sentences and letters, with neatness, rapidity, and correctness.

3. Religious instruction in the connected Bible history.

The design here is to give to the student a full and connected view of the whole Bible history. For this purpose large tables are made out and hung before the students. These tables are generally arranged in four columns, the first containing the names of the distinguished men during a particular period of Bible history;

the second, the dates; the third, a chronological register of events; and the fourth, the particular passages of the Bible where the history of these persons and events may be found. With these tables before the pupils, the teacher himself, in his own words, gives a brief conversational outline of the principal characters and events within a certain period, and then gives directions that the scriptural passages referred to be carefully read. After this is done, the usual recitation and examination takes place. Some of the more striking narratives, such as the finding of Moses on the banks of the Nile; Abraham offering his son; the journey of the wise men to do homage to Christ; the crucifixion; the conversion of Paul, &c., are committed to memory in the words of the Bible, and the recitation accompanied with the singing of a hymn alluding to these events. The moral instruction to be derived from each historical event is carefully impressed by the teacher. The teacher also gives them a brief view of the history between the termination of the Old and the commencement of the New Testament, that nothing may be wanting to a complete and systematic view of the whole ground. Thus the whole of the historical part of the Bible is studied thoroughly, and systematically, and practically, without the least sectarian bias, and without a moment being spent on a single idea that will not be of the highest use to the scholar during all his future life.

4. Language and grammar.

There is here a continuation of the exercises in the preceding parts of the course, in a more scientific form, together with parsing of connected sentences, and writing from the dictation of the teacher, with reference to grammar, orthography, and punctuation. The same principal alluded to before, of avoiding technical terms till the things represented by those terms are clearly perceived, is here carefully adhered to. A single specimen of the manner in which the modes and tenses of the verb are taught may be sufficient to illustrate my meaning. The teacher writes on the blackboard a simple sentence, as, "The scholars learn well;" and asks the class what sort of a sentence it is. They reply that it is a direct statement of a fact. (Teach.) Put it in the form of a command. (Class.) Scholars, learn well! (Teach.) Put it in a question form. (Class.) Do the scholars learn well? (Teach.) Of a wish. (Class.) May the scholars learn well! (Teach.) Of an exclamation. (Class.) How well the scholars learn! (Teach.) The conditional form. (Class.) If the scholars learn well; or, should the scholars learn well. (Teach.) Of necessity. (Class.) The scholars must learn well. (Teach.) Of ability. (Class.) The scholars can learn well, &c., &c. They are then taught that the direct statement is called the indicative mode of the verb; the command, the imperative mode; the conditional, the subjunctive mode; the wish, the potential mode, &c., &c.; and after this, the book is put into their hands, and they study their lesson as it stands. After this the different tenses of the several modes are taught in the same way.

5. Real instruction, or knowledge of Nature and the external world, including the first elements of the natural sciences, the arts of life, geography, and history. Instruction on this head is directed to the answering of the following questions, namely:

(a) What is man, as it respects his corporeal and intellectual nature?

Here come anatomy and physiology, so far as the structure of the human body is concerned, and the functions of its several parts.

Also the simple elements of mental philosophy. In this connection appropriate texts of Scripture are quoted, as Gen. ii. 7. Ps. cxxxix. 14–16. An appropriate hymn is also sung.

"And the Lord God formed man of the dust of the ground, and breathed into his nostrils the breath of life; and man became a living soul."

"I will praise thee: for I am fearfully and wonderfully made: marvellous are thy works; and that my soul knoweth right well. My substance was not hid from thee, when I was made in secret, and curiously wrought in the lowest parts of the earth. Thine eyes did see my substance, yet being imperfect; and in thy book all my members were written, which in continuance were fashioned, when as yet there was none of them."

(b) What does man need for the preservation and cheerful enjoyment of life, as it respects his body and mind? For his body he needs *food;* the different kinds of food, and the mode of preparing them, are here brought to view; the unwholesomeness of some kinds of food; injuriousness of improper food; cooking;

evils of gluttony. The different kinds of clothing and modes of preparing them; what sort of dress is necessary to health; folly and wickedness of vanity and extravagance. *Dwellings*, materials of which houses are constructed; mode of constructing them; different trades employed in their construction.

For the mind, man needs *society*, the family and its duties; the neighborhood and its duties. Intellectual, moral, and religious cultivation; the school and its duties; the church and its duties. For the body and mind both, he needs *security* of person and property; the government; the legislature; the courts, &c.

(*c*) Where and how do men find the means to supply their wants, and make themselves comfortable and happy in this life?

The vegetable, the mineral, and the animal kingdoms are here brought to view, for materials; together with agriculture and manufactures, as the means of converting these materials to our use. Geography, with special reference to the productions of countries, and their civil, literary, and religious institutions; towns, their organization and employments. Geography is sometimes taught by blank charts, to which the students are required to affix the names of the several countries, rivers, mountains, principal towns, &c., and then state the productions and institutions for which they are remarkable. Sometimes the names of countries, rivers, &c., are given, and the pupil is required to construct an outline chart of their localities.

In respect to all the above points, the native country is particularly studied; its capabilities, its productions, its laws, its institutions, its history, &c., are investigated, with especial reference to its ability of supplying the physical, social, and moral wants of its inhabitants. Under this head the pupils are taught to appreciate their native country, to venerate and love its institutions, to understand what is necessary to their perfection, and to imbibe a spirit of pure and generous patriotism. It is scarcely necessary to add, that all the instruction under this fifth head is confined to the fundamental and simplest principles of the several branches referred to.

6. Arithmetic, continued through fractions and the rules of proportion.
7. Geometry, doctrine of magnitudes and measures.
8. Singing, and science of vocal and instrumental music.

IV. *Fourth part, of two years—children from twelve to fourteen.*

1. Religious instruction, in the religious observation of Nature, the life and discourses of Jesus Christ, the history of the Christian religion, in connection with the cotemporary civil history, and the principal doctrines of the Christian system.

The first topic of instruction mentioned under this head is one of peculiar interest and utility. The pupils are taught to observe, with care and system, the various powers and operations of Nature, and to consider them as so many illustrations of the wisdom, power, and goodness of the Creator; and at each lesson they are directed to some appropriate passage of the Bible, which they read and commit to memory: and thus the idea is continually impressed on them, that the God of Nature and the God of the Bible are one and the same Being.

For example, as introductory to the whole study, the first chapter of Genesis, together with some other appropriate passage of Scripture, as the 147th Psalm, or the 38th chapter of Job, may be read and committed to memory. The surface of the earth, as illustrating the power and wisdom of God, may be taken as a lesson. Then the varieties of surface, as mountains, valleys, oceans and rivers, continents and islands, the height of mountains, the breadth of oceans, the length of rivers, remarkable cataracts, extended caverns, volcanoes, tides, &c., may be taken into view, and the teacher may impress upon the class the greatness, power, and intelligence necessary for such a creation. The whole is fortified by the application of such a passage as Psalm civ. 1–13.

> "Bless the Lord, O my soul! O Lord my God! thou art very great; thou art clothed with honor and majesty. Who coverest thyself with light as with a garment: who stretchest out the heavens like a curtain: who layeth the beams of his chambers in the waters: who maketh the clouds his chariot· who walketh upon the wings of the wind: who maketh his angels spirits; his ministers a flaming fire. Who laid the foundations of the earth, that it should not be removed forever. Thou coverest it with the deep as with a garment: the waters stood above the mountains. At thy rebuke they fled; at the voice of thy thunder they hasted away. They go up by the mountains; they go down by the valleys unto the place which thou hast founded for them. Thou hast set a bound that they may not pass over; that they turn not again to cover the earth. He sendeth the springs into the valleys,

which run among the hills. They give drink to every beast of the field; the wild asses quench their thirst. By them shall the fowls of the heaven have their habitation, which sing among the branches. He watereth the hills from his chambers: the earth is satisfied with the fruit of thy works."

"O Lord, how manifold are thy works! in wisdom hast thou made them all: the earth is full of thy riches. So is this great and wide sea, wherein are things creeping innumerable, both small and great beasts. There go the ships: there is that leviathan, whom thou hast made to play therein."

The fruitfulness and beauty of the earth, as illustrating the wisdom and goodness of God, may serve as another lesson. Here may be exhibited the beauty and variety of the plants and flowers with which the earth is adorned; the manner of their growth and self-propagation, their utility to man and beast, their immense number and variety, their relations to each other as genera and species; trees and their varieties, their beauty and utility, their timber and their fruit; and, in connection with this lesson, Psalm civ. 14–34 may be committed to memory.

"He causeth the grass to grow for the cattle, and herb for the service of man: that he may bring forth food out of the earth; and wine that maketh glad the heart of man, and oil to make his face to shine, and bread which strengtheneth man's heart. The trees of the Lord are full of sap; the cedars of Lebanon, which he hath planted; where the birds make their nests: as for the stork, the fir trees are her house. The high hills are a refuge for the wild goats; and the rocks for the conies. He appointeth the moon for seasons: the sun knoweth his going down. Thou maketh darkness, and it is night: wherein all the beasts of the forest do creep forth. The young lions roar after their prey, and seek their meat from God. The sun ariseth, they gather themselves together, and lay them down in their dens. Man goeth forth unto his work and to his labor until the evening."

"These wait all upon thee; that thou mayest give them their meat in due season. That thou givest them they gather; thou openest thine hand, they are filled with good. Thou hidest thy face, they are troubled: thou takest away their breath, they die, and return to their dust. Thou sendest forth thy Spirit, they are created: and thou renewest the face of the earth. The glory of the Lord shall endure forever: the Lord shall rejoice in his works. He looketh on the earth, and it trembleth: he toucheth the hills, and they smoke. I will sing unto the Lord as long as I live: I will sing praise to my God while I have my being. My meditation of him shall be sweet: I will be glad in the Lord."

In like manner, the creation and nourishment, the habits and instincts of various animals may be contemplated, in connection with Proverbs vi. 6–8; Psalm civ. 17–22; Proverbs xxx. 24–31; Gen. i. 20–24; Psalm cxlv. 15–16.

"Go to the ant, thou sluggard! consider her ways, and be wise: Which having no guide, overseer, or ruler, provideth her meat in the summer, and gathereth her food in the harvest."

"There be four things which are little on the earth, but they are exceeding wise: the ants are a people not strong, yet they prepare their meat in the summer; the conies are but a feeble folk, yet make they their houses in the rocks; the locusts have no king, yet go they forth all of them by bands; the spider taketh hold with her hands, and is in kings' palaces. There be three things which go well, yea, four are comely in going: a lion, which is strongest among beasts, and turneth not away for any: a grayhound; a he-goat also; and a king, against whom there is no rising up."

"And God said, Let the earth bring forth the living creature after his kind, cattle, and creeping thing, and beasts of the earth after his kind: and it was so. And God made the beast of the earth after his kind, and cattle after their kind, and every thing that creepeth upon the earth after his kind: and God saw that it was good."

"The eyes of all wait upon thee; and thou givest them their meat in due season. Thou openest thine hand, and satisfiest the desire of every living thing. The Lord is righteous in all his ways, and holy in all his works."

The phenomena of light and color, the nature of the rainbow, &c., may make another interesting lesson, illustrating the unknown forms of beauty and glory which exist in the Divine Mind, and which He may yet develope in other and still more glorious worlds; in connection with Gen. i. 3, 5, 9, 13, 14, and other passages of like kind.

So the properties of the air, wind, and storm, Job xxviii. 25; xxxviii. 33, 34, 35. Psalm cxlviii. 8.

"Knowest thou the ordinance of heaven? canst thou set the dominion thereof in the earth? Canst thou lift up thy voice to the clouds, that abundance of waters may cover thee? Canst thou send lightnings, that they may go, and say unto thee, Here we are? Who hath put wisdom in the inward parts? or who hath given understanding to the heart? Who can number the clouds in wisdom? or who can stay the bottles of heaven?"

Then the heavens, the sun, moon, planets, fixed stars, and comets, the whole science of astronomy, so far as it can be introduced with advantage into common schools, can be contemplated in the same way. The enlightening, elevating, and purifying moral influence of such a scheme of instruction, carried through the whole system of Nature, must be clearly obvious to every thinking mind; and its utility, considered merely with reference to worldly good, is no less manifest.

The second topic of religious instruction is more exclusively scriptural. The life of Christ, and the history of the apostles, as given in the New Testament, are chronologically arranged, and tables formed as before. (III. 3.) The discourses of Christ are examined and explained in their chronological arrangement, and in the same way the discourses and epistles of the apostles. The history of Christianity, in connection with the cotemporary civil history, is taught in a series of conversational lectures. To conclude the whole course of religious instruction, a summary of the Christian doctrine is given in the form of some approved catechism.

2. Knowledge of the world and of mankind, including civil society, constitutional law, agriculture, mechanic arts, manufactures, &c.

This is a continuation and completion, in a more systematic form, of the instruction commenced in III. 5. The course begins with the family, and the first object is to construct a habitation. The pupil tells what materials are necessary for this purpose, where they are to be found, how brought together and fitted into the several parts of the building. The house must now be furnished. The different articles of furniture and their uses are named in systematic order, the materials of which they are made, and the various trades employed in making them are enumerated. Then comes the garden, its tools and products, and whatever else is necessary for the subsistence and physical comfort of a family. Then the family duties and virtues; parental and filial obligation and affection; rights of property: duties of neighborhoods; the civil relations of society; the religious relations of society; the state, the father-land, &c.; finally, geography, history, and travels. Books of travels are compiled expressly for the use of schools, and are found to be of the highest interest and utility.

3. Language, and exercises in composition.

The object here is to give the pupils a perfect command of their native tongue, and ability to use it on all occasions with readiness and power. The first exercises are on simple questions, such as—"Why ought children to love and obey their parents?" or they are short descriptions of visible objects, such as a house, a room, a garden, &c. There are also exercises on the various forms of expressing the same idea, as, "The sun enlightens the earth." "The earth is enlightened by the sun." "The sun gives light to the earth." "The earth receives light from the sun." "The sun is the source of light to the earth." "The sun sends out its rays to enlighten the earth." "The earth is enlightened by rays sent out from the sun," &c. There are exercises also of the same sort on metaphors and other figures of speech. Familiar letters are then written, and short essays on themes such as may be furnished by texts from the Book of Proverbs, and other sentences of the kind; and thus gradual advancement is made to all the higher and graver modes of composition.

4. Application of arithmetic and the mathematics to the business of life, including surveying, civil engineering, &c.

The utility of this branch of instruction, and the mode of it, after what has already been said, are probably too obvious to need any further illustration.

5. Elements of drawing.

For this the pupils have already been prepared by the exercises in ornamental writing, in the previous part of the course. They have already acquired that accuracy of sight and steadiness of hand which are among the most essential requisites to drawing well. The first exercises are in drawing lines, and the most simple mathematical figures, such as the square, the cube, the triangle, the parallelogram; generally from wooden models, placed at some little distance on a shelf, before the class. From this they proceed to architectural figures, such as doors, windows, columns, façades. Then the figures of animals, such as a horse, a cow, an elephant; first from other pictures, and then from Nature. A plant, a rose, or some flower is placed upon a shelf, and the class make a picture of it. From this they proceed to landscape painting, historical painting, and the higher branches of the art, according to their time and capacity. All learn enough of drawing to use it in the common business of life, such as plotting a field, laying out a canal, or drawing the plan of a building; and many attain to a high degree of excellence.

6. Exercises in singing, and the science of music.

The instructions of the previous parts are extended as far as possible, and include singing and playing at sight, and the more abstruse and difficult branches of the science and art of music.

The following extracts from Hon. Horace Mann's Seventh Annual Report to the Board of Education in Massachusetts, will supply some deficiences in the foregoing sketch, and, at the same time, present the impressions of another observer.

CLASSIFICATION.

The first element of superiority in a Prussian school, and one whose influence extends throughout the whole subsequent course of instruction, consists in the proper classification of the scholars. In all places where the numbers are sufficiently large to allow it, the children are divided according to ages and attainments; and a single teacher has the charge only of a single class, or of as small a number of classes as is practicable. I have before adverted to the construction of the school-houses, by which, as far as possible, a room is assigned to each class. Let us suppose a teacher to have the charge of but one class, and to have talent and resources sufficient properly to engage and occupy its attention, and we suppose a perfect school. But how greatly are the teacher's duties increased, and his difficulties multiplied, if he have four, five, or half a dozen classes, under his personal inspection. While attending to the recitation of one, his mind is constantly called off, to attend to the studies and the conduct of all the others. For this, very few teachers amongst us have the requisite capacity; and hence the idleness and the disorder that reign in so many of our schools, excepting in cases where the debasing motive of fear puts the children in irons. All these difficulties are at once avoided by a suitable classification; by such a classification as enables the teacher to address his instructions at the same time to all the children who are before him, and to accompany them to the play-ground, at recess or intermission, without leaving any behind who might be disposed to take advantage of his absence. All this will become more and more obvious as I proceed with a description of exercises. There is no obstacle whatever, save prescription, and that *vis inertia* of mind which continues in the beaten track because it has not vigor enough to turn aside from it, to the introduction, at once, of this mode of dividing and classifying scholars, in all our large towns.

METHOD OF TEACHING YOUNG CHILDREN ON THEIR FIRST ENTERING SCHOOL.

In regard to this as well as other modes of teaching, I shall endeavor to describe some particular lessons that I heard. The Prussian and Saxon schools are all conducted substantially upon the same plan, and taught in the same manner. Of course, there must be those differences to which different degrees of talent and experience give rise.

About twenty years ago, teachers in Prussia made the important discovery that children have five senses, together with various muscles and mental faculties, all which, almost by a necessity of their nature, must be kept in a state of activity, and which, if not usefully, are liable to be mischievously employed. Subsequent improvements in the art of teaching have consisted in supplying interesting and useful, instead of mischievous occupation, for these senses, muscles, and faculties. Experience has now proved that it is much easier to furnish profitable and delightful employment for all these powers, than it is to stand over them with a rod and stifle their workings, or to assume a thousand shapes of fear to guard the thousand avenues through which the salient spirits of the young play outward. Nay, it is much easier to keep the eye, and hand, and mind at work together, than it is to employ any one of them separately from the others. A child is bound to the teacher by so many more cords, the more of his natural capacities the teacher can interest and employ.

In the case I am now to describe, I entered a class-room of sixty children, of about six years of age. The children were just taking their seats, all smiles and expectation. They had been at school but a few weeks, but long enough to have contracted a love for it. The teacher took his station before them, and after making a playful remark which excited a light titter around the room, and effectually arrested attention, he gave a signal for silence. After wating a moment, during which every countenance was composed and every noise hushed, he made a prayer consisting of a single sentence, asking that as they had come together to learn, they might be good and diligent. He then spoke to them of the beautiful day, asked what they knew about the seasons, referred to the different kinds of fruit-trees then in bearing, and questioned them upon the uses of trees in constructing houses, furniture, &c. Frequently he threw in sportive remarks which enlivened the whole school, but without ever producing the slightest symptom of disorder. During the familiar conversation, which lasted about twenty minutes, there was nothing frivolous or trifling in the manner of the teacher; that manner was dignified though playful, and the little jets of laughter which he caused the children occasionally to throw out, were much more favorable to a receptive state of mind than jets of tears.

Here I must make a prelimenary remark, in regard to the equipments of the scholars and the furniture of the school-room. Every child has a slate and pencil, and a little reading book of letters, words, and short sentences. Indeed, I never saw a Prussian or Saxon school, above an infant school, in which any child was unprovided with a slate and pencil. By the teacher's desk, and in front of the school, hung a blackboard. The teacher first drew a house upon the blackboard; and here the value of the art of drawing, a power universally possessed by Prussian teachers, became manifest. By the side of the drawing and under it, he wrote the word *house* in the German script hand, and printed it in the German letter. With a long pointing rod, the end being painted white to make it more visible, he ran over the form of the letters, the children, with their slates before them and their pencils in their hands, looking at the pointing rod and tracing the forms of the letters in the air. In all our good schools, children are first taught to imitate the forms of letters on the slate before they write them on paper; here they were first imitated on the air, then on slates, and subsequently, in older classes, on paper. The next process was to copy the word "house," both in script and in print, on their slates. Then followed the formation of the sounds of the letters of which the word was composed, and the spelling of the word. Here the *names* of the letters were not given as with us, but only their powers, or the sounds which those letters have in combination. The letter *h* was first selected and set up in the reading-frame, (the same before described as part of the apparatus of Prussian schools for young children,) instead of articulating our alphabetic *h*, (aitch,) merely gave a hard breathing; such a sound as the letter really has in the word "house." Then the dipthong, *au*, (the German word for "house" is spelled "haus,") was taken and sounded by itself, in the same way. Then the blocks containing *h*, and *au*, were brought together, and the two sounds were combined. Lastly, the letter *s* was first sounded by itself, then added to the others, and then the whole word was spoken. Sometimes the last letter in a word was first taken and sounded; after that the penultimate; and so on until the word was completed. The responses of the children were sometimes individual, and sometimes simultaneous, according to a signal given by the master.

In every such school, also, there are printed sheets or cards, containing the letters, dipthongs, and whole words. The children are taught to sound a dipthong, and then asked in what words that sound occurs. On some of these cards there are words enough to make several short sentences, and when the pupils are a little advanced, the teacher points to several isolated words in succession, which when taken together make a familiar sentence, and thus he gives them an agreeable surprise, and a pleasant initiation into reading.

After the word "house" was thus completely impressed upon the minds of the children, the teacher drew his pointing rod over the lines which formed the house; and the children imitated him, first in the air, while they were looking at his motions, then on their slates. In their drawings there was of course a great variety as to taste and accuracy; but each seemed pleased with his own, for their first attempts had never been so criticised as to produce discouragement. Several children were then called to the blackboard to draw a house with chalk. After this, the teacher entered into a conversation about houses. The first question was, what kind of a house was that on the blackboard? Then the names of other kinds of houses were given. The materials of which houses are built were mentioned stone, brick, wood; the different kinds of wood; nails, and where they were made; lime, and whence it came, &c. &c. When the teacher touched upon points with which the children were supposed to be acquainted, he asked questions; when he passed to subjects beyond their sphere, he gave information, intermingling the whole with lively remarks and pleasant anecdotes.

And here one important particular should not be omitted. In this, as well as in all other schools, a complete answer was always required. For instance, if a teacher asks, "What are houses made of?" he does not accept the answer, "of wood" or "of stone;" but he requires a full, complete, (vollständig) answer; as, "a house may be made of wood." The answer must always contain an intelligible proposition without reference to the words of the question to complete it. And here also the greatest care is taken that the answer shall always be grammatically correct, have the right terminations of all articles, adjectives and nouns, and the right grammatical transpositions according to the idioms and structure of the language. This secures from the beginning, precision in the expression of ideas; and if, as many philosophers suppose, the intellect could never carry forward its processes of argument or investigation to any great extent, without using language as its instrument, then these children, in their primary lessons, are not only led to exercise the intellect, but the instrument is put into their hands by which its operations are facilitated.

When the hour had expired, I do not believe there was a child in the room who knew or thought that his play-time had come. No observing person can be at a loss to understand how such a teacher can arrest and retain the attention of his scholars. It must have happened to almost every one, at some time in his life, to be present as a member of a large assembly, when some speaker, in the midst of great uproar and confusion, has arisen to address it. If, in the very commencement of his exordium, he makes what is called a happy hit, which is answered by a response of laughter or applause from those who are near enough to hear it, the attention of the next circle will be aroused. If, then, the speaker makes another felicitous sally of wit or imagination, this circle too becomes the willing subject of his power; until, by a succession of flashes whether of genius or of wit, he soons brings the whole audience under his command, and sways it as the sun and moon sway the tide. This is the result of talent, of attainment, and of the successful study both of men and of things; and whoever has a sufficiency of these requisites will be able to command the attention of children, just as a powerful orator commands the attention of men. But the one no more than the other is the unbought gift of nature. They are the rewards of application and toil superadded to talent.

Now it is obvious that in the single exercise above described, there were the elements of reading, spelling, writing, grammar, and drawing, interspersed with anecdotes and not a little general information; and yet there was no excessive variety, nor were any incongruous subjects forcibly brought together. There was nothing to violate the rule of "one thing at a time."

Compare the above method with that of calling up a class of abecedarians; or, what is more common, a single child, and while the teacher holds a book or a card before him, and, with a pointer in his hand, says *a*, he echoes *a;* then *b*, and he echoes *b;* and so on until the vertical row of lifeless and ill-favored characters is completed, and then of remanding him to his seat, to sit still and look at vacancy. If the child is bright, the time which passes during this lesson is the only part of the day when he does not think. Not a single faculty of the mind is occupied except that of imitating sounds; and even the number of these imitations amounts only to twenty-six. A parrot or an idiot could do the same thing. And so of the organs and members of the body. They are condemned to inactivity; for the child who stands most like a post is most approved; nay, he is rebuked if he does not stand like a post. A head that does not turn to the right or left, an eye that lies moveless in its socket, hands hanging motionless at the side, and feet immovable as those of a statue, are the points of excellence, while the child is echoing the senseless table of a, b, c. As a general rule, six months are spent before the twenty-six letters are mastered. though the same child would learn the names of twenty-six playmates or twenty-six playthings in one or two days.

All children are pleased with the idea of a house, a hat, a top, a ball, a bird, an egg, a nest, a flower, &c.; and when their minds are led to see new relations or qualities in these objects, or when their former notions respecting them are brought out more vividly, or are more distinctly defined, their delight is even keener than that of an adult would be in obtaining a new fact in science, or in having the mist of some old doubt dispelled by a new discovery. Lessons on familiar objects, given by a competent teacher, never fail to command attention, and thus a habit of mind is induced of inestimable value in regard to all future study.

Again, the method I have described necessarily leads to conversation, and conversation with an intelligent teacher secures several important objects. It communicates information. It brightens ideas before only dimly apprehended. It addresses itself to the various faculties of the mind, so that no one of them ever tires or is cloyed. It teaches the child to use language, to frame sentences, to select words which convey his whole meaning, to avoid those which convey either more or less than he intends to express; in fine, it teaches him to seek for thoughts upon a subject, and then to find appropriate language in which to clothe them. A child trained in this way will never commit those absurd and ludicrous mistakes into which uneducated men of some sense not unfrequently fall, viz., that of mismatching their words and ideas; of hanging as it were, the garments of a giant upon the body of a pigmy, or of forcing a pigmys's dress upon the huge limbs of a giant. Appropriate diction should clothe just ideas, as a tasteful and substantial garb fits a graceful and vigorous form.

The above described exercise occupies the eye and the hand as well as the mind. The eye is employed in tracing visible differences between different forms, and the hand in copying whatever is presented, with as little difference as possible. And who ever saw a child that was not pleased with pictures, and an attempt to imitate them? Thus, the two grand objects so strenuously insisted upon by writers, in regard to the later periods of education and the maturer processes of thought, are attained, viz., the power of recognizing analogies and dissimilarities.

Having given an account of the reading lesson of a primary class, just after they had commenced going to school, I will follow it with a brief account of a lesson given to a more advanced class. The subject was a short piece of poetry describing a hunter's life in Missouri. It was first read, the reading being accompanied with appropriate criticisms as to pronunciation, tone, &c. It was then taken up verse by verse, and the pupils were required to give equivalent expressions in prose. The teacher then entered into an explanation of every part of it, in a sort of oral lecture, accompanied with occasional questions. This was done with the greatest minuteness. Where there was a geographical reference, he entered at large into geography; where a reference to a foreign custom, he compared it with their customs at home; and thus he explained every part, and illustrated the illustrations themselves, until, after an entire hour spent upon six four line verses, he left them to write out the sentiment and the story in prose, to be produced in school the next morning. All this was done without the slightest break or hesitation, and evidently proceeded from a mind full of the subject, and having a ready command of all its resources.

An account of one more lesson will close what I have to say on the subject of reading. The class consisted of young lads, belonging to a burgher school, which they were just about leaving. They had been reading a poem of Schiller; a sort of philosophical allegory; and when it was completed, the teacher called upon one of them to give a popular exposition of the meaning of the piece. The lad left his seat, stepped to the teacher's desk, and, standing in front of the school, occupied about fifteen or twenty minutes in an extemporaneous account of the poem, and what he supposed to be its meaning and moral.

ARITHMETIC AND MATHEMATICS.

Children are taught to cipher, or, if need be, to count, soon after entering school. I will attempt to describe a lesson which I saw given to a very young class. Blocks of one cube, two cubes, three cubes, &c., up to a block of ten cubes, lay upon the teacher's desk. The cubes on each block were distinctly marked off, and differently colored, that is, if the first inch or cube was white, the next would be black. The teacher stood by his desk, and in front of the class. He set up a block of one cube, and the class simultaneously said *one*. A block of two cubes was then placed by the side of the first, and the class said *two*. This was done until the ten blocks stood by the side of each other in a row. They were then counted backward, the teacher placing his finger upon them, as a signal that their respective numbers were to be called. The next exercise was, "two comes after one, three comes after two," and so on to ten; and then backward, "nine comes before ten, eight comes before nine, and so of the rest. The teacher then asked, What is three composed of? *A*. Three is composed of one and two. *Q*. Of what else is three composed? *A*. Three is composed of three ones. *Q*. What is four composed of? *A*. Four is composed of four ones, of two and two, of three and one. *Q*. What is five composed of? *A*. Five is composed of five ones, of two and three, of two twos and one, of four and one. *Q*. What numbers compose six? seven? eight? nine? To the latter the pupil would answer, "Three threes make nine; two, three, and four make nine; two, two, and five make nine; three, four, and two make nine; three, five, and one make nine," &c., &c. The teacher then placed similar blocks side by side, while the children added their respective numbers together "two twos make four;" "three twos make six," &c. The blocks were then turned down horizontally to show that three blocks of two cubes each were equal to one of six cubes. Such questions were then asked as, how many are six less than eight? five less than seven? &c. Then, how many are seven and eight? The answer was given thus: eight are one more than seven, seven and seven make fourteen, and one added makes fifteen; therefore eight and seven make fifteen. *Q*. How many are six and eight? *A*. Eight are two more than six, six and six make twelve, and two added make fourteen. Or it might be thus: six are two less than eight, eight and eight are sixteen, two taken from sixteen leave fourteen, therefore eight and six are fourteen. They then counted up to a hundred on the blocks. Toward the close of the lesson, such questions as these were put, and readily answered: Of what is thirty-eight composed? *A*. Thirty-eight is composed of thirty and eight ones; of seven fives and three ones; or sometimes thus: of thirty-seven and one; of thirty-six and two ones; of thirty-five and three ones, &c. *Q*. Of what is ninety composed? *A*. Ninety is composed of nine tens, of fifty and forty, &c., &c.

Thus, with a frequent reference to the blocks, to keep up attention by presenting an object to the eye, the simple numbers were handled and transposed in a great variety of ways. In this lesson, it is obvious that counting, numeration, addition, substraction, multiplication, and division were all included, yet there was no abstract rule, or unintelligible form of words given out to be committed to memory. Nay, these little children took the first steps in the mensuration of superficies and solids, by comparing the length and contents of one block with those of others.

When the pupils were a little further advanced, I usually heard lessons recited in this way: Suppose 4321 are to be multiplied by 25. The pupil says, five times one are five ones, and he sets down 5 in the unit's place; five times two tens, or twenty ones, are a hundred, and sets down a cipher in the ten's place; five times three hundred are one thousand and five hundred, and one hundred to be carried make one thousand six hundred, and sets down a 6 in the hundred's place; five times four thousand are twenty thousand, and one thousand to be carried make twenty-one thousand. The next figure in the multiplier is then taken, twenty times one are twenty, and a 2 is set down in the ten's place; twenty times two tens are four hundred, and a 4 is set down in the hundred's place; twenty times three hundred are six thousand, and a 6 is set down in the thousand's place; twenty times four thousand are eighty thousand, and an 8 is set down in the ten thousand's place. Then come the additions to get the product. Five ones are five, two tens are twenty, and these figures are respectively set down; four hundred and six hundred make a thousand, and a cipher is set down in the hundred's place; one thousand to be carried to six thousand makes seven thousand, and one thousand more makes eight thousand, and an 8 is set down in the thousand's place; eighty thousand and twenty thousand make one hundred thousand, and a cipher is set down in the ten thousand's place, and a 1 in the hundred thousand's place. It is easy to see that where the multiplier and multiplicand are large, this process soon passes beyond mere child's play.

So in division. If 32756 are to be divided by 75, the pupil says, how many hundred times are seventy-five, or seventy-five ones, contained in thirty-two thousand and seven hundred, or in thirty-two thousand and seven hundred ones? four hundred times, and he sets down a 4 in the hundred's place in the quotient; then the divisor seventy-five is multiplied (as before) by the four hundred, and the product is set down under the first three figures of the dividend, and there are two thousand and seven hundred remaining. This remainder is set down in the next line, because seventy-five is not contained in two thousand seven hundred any number of hundred times. And so of the residue of the process.

When there is danger that an advanced class will forget the value of the denominations they are handling, they are required to express the value of each figure in full, throughout the whole process, in the manner above described.

I shall never forget the impression which a recitation by a higher class of girls produced upon my mind. It lasted an hour. Neither teacher nor pupil had book or slate. Questions and answers were extemporaneous. They consisted of problems in Vulgar Fractions, simple and compound; in the Rule of Three, Practice, Interest, Discount, &c., &c. A few of the first were simple, but they soon increase in complication and difficulty, and in the amount of the sums managed, until I could hardly credit the report of my own senses, so difficult were the questions, and so prompt and accurate the replies.

A great many of the exercises in arithmetic consisted in reducing the coins of one State to those of another. In Germany, there are almost as many different currencies as there are States; and the expression of the value of one coin in other denominations, is a very common exercise.

It struck me that the main differences between their mode of teaching arithmetic and ours, consists in their beginning earlier, continuing the practice in the elements much longer, requiring a more thorough analysis of all questions, and in not separating the processes, or rules, so much as we do from each other. The pupils proceed less by rule, more by an understanding of the subject. It often happens to our children that while engaged in one rule, they forget a preceding. Hence, many of our best teachers have frequent reviews. But there, as I stated above, the youngest classes of children were taught addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, promiscuously, *in the same lesson*. And so it was in the later stages. The mind was constantly carried along, and the practice enlarged in more than one direction. It is a difference which results from teaching, in the one case, from a book; and in the other from the head. In the latter case the teacher sees what each pupil most needs, and, if he finds any one halting or failing on a particular class of questions, plies him with questions of that kind until his deficiencies are supplied.

In algebra, trigonometry, surveying, geometry, &c., I invariably saw the teacher standing before the blackboard, drawing the diagrams and explaining all the relations between their several parts, while the pupils, in their seats, having a pen and a small manuscript book, copied the figures, and took down brief heads of the solution; and at the next recitation they were required to go to the blackboard, draw the figures and solve the problems themselves. How different this mode of hearing a lesson from that of holding the text-book in the left hand, while the fore-finger of the right carefully follows the printed demonstration, under penalty, should the place be lost, of being obliged to recommence the solution.

GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

Great attention is paid to Grammar, or, as it is usually called in the "Plan of Studies," the German language. But I heard very little of the ding-dong and recitative of gender, number and case, of government and agreement, which make up so great a portion of the grammatical exercises in our schools; and which the pupils are often required to repeat until they really lose all sense of the original meaning of the terms they use. Of what service is it for children to reiterate and reassert, fifty times in a single recitation, the gender and number of nouns, about which they never made a mistake even before a grammar book was put into their hands? If the object of grammar is to teach children to speak and write their native language with propriety, then they should be practiced upon expressing their own ideas with elegance, distinctness, and force. For this purpose, their common every day phraseology is first to be attended to. As their speech becomes more copious, they should be led to recognize those slight shades of distinction which exist between words almost synonymous; to descriminate between the literal and the figurative; and to frame sentences in which the main idea shall be brought out conspicuously and prominently, while all subordinate ones, mere matters of circumstance or qualification, shall occupy humbler or more retired positions. The sentences of some public speakers are so arranged, that what is collateral or incidental stands out boldly in the foreground, while the principal thought is almost lost in the shade; an arrangement as preposterous as if, in the senate chamber, the forum or the parade-ground, the president, the judge or the commanding officer, were thrust into the rear, while a nameless throng of non-officials and incognitos should occupy the places of dignity and authority. Grammar should be taught in such a way as to lead out into rhetoric as it regards the form of the expression, and into logic as it regards the sequence and coherency of the thoughts. If this is so, then no person is competent to teach grammar who is not familiar at least with all the leading principles of rhetoric and logic.

The Prussian teachers, by their constant habit of conversing with the pupils; by requiring a complete answer to be given to every question; by never allowing a mistake in termination, or in the collocation of words or clauses, to pass uncorrected, nor the sentence as corrected to pass unrepeated; by requiring the poetry of the reading lesson to be changed into oral or written prose, and the prose to be paraphrased, or expressed in different words; and by exacting a general account or summary of the reading lessons, are, as we may almost literally say, constantly teaching grammar; or, as they more comprehensively call it, the German language. It is easy to see that Composition is included under this head, the writing of regular "essays" or "themes" being only a later exercise.

WRITING AND DRAWING.

Such excellent handwriting as I saw in the Prussian schools, I never saw before. I can hardly express myself too strongly on this point. In Great Britian, France, or in our own country, I have never seen any schools worthy to be compared with theirs in this respect. I have before said that I found all children provided with a slate and pencil. They write or print letters, and begin with the elements of drawing, either immediately, or very soon after they enter school. This furnishes the greater part of the explanation of their excellent handwriting. A part of it, I think, should be referred to the peculiarity of the German script, which seems to me to be easier than our own. But after all due allowance is made for this advantage, a high degree of superiority over the schools of other countries remain to be accounted for. This superiority can not be attributed in any degree to a better manner of holding the pen, for I never saw so great a proportion of cases in any schools where the pen was so awkwardly held. This excellence must be referred in a great degree to the universal practice of learning to draw, contemporaneously with learning to write. I believe a child will learn both to draw and to write sooner and with more ease, than he will learn writing alone; and for this reason: the figures or objects contemplated and copied in learning to draw, are larger, more marked, more distinctive one from another, and more sharply defined with projection, angle or curve, than the letters copied in writing. In drawing there is more variety, in writing more sameness. Now the objects contemplated in drawing, *from their nature*, attract attention more readily, impress the mind more deeply, and of course will be more accurately copied than those in writing. And when the eye has been trained to observe, to distinguish, and to imitate, in the first exercise, it applies its habits with great advantage to the second.

Another reason is, that the child is taught to draw things with which he is familiar, which have some significance and give him pleasing ideas. But a child who is made to fill page after page with rows of straight marks, that look so blank and cheerless though done ever so well, has and can have no pleasing associations with his work. The practice of beginning with making inexpressive marks, or with writting unintelligible words, bears some resemblanee, in its lifelessness, to that of learning the alphabet. Each exhales torpor and stupidity to deaden the vivacity of the worker.

Again, I have found it an almost universal opinion with teachers of the art of writing, that children should commence with large hand rather than with fine. The reason for this I suppose to be, that where the letters themselves are larger, their differences and peculiarities are proportionally large; hence they can be more easily discriminated, and discrimination must necessarily precede exact copying. So to speak, the child becomes acquainted with the physiognomy of the large letters more easily than with that of the small. Besides, the formation of the larger gives more freedom of motion to the hand. Now, in these respects, there is more difference between the objects used in drawing and the letters of a large hand, than between the latter and fine hand; and therefore the argument in favor of a large hand, applies with still more force in favor of drawing.

In the course of my tour, I passed from countries where almost every pupil in every school could draw with ease, and most of them with no inconsiderable degree of beauty and expression, to those where less and less attention was paid to the subject; and, at last, to schools where drawing was not practiced at all; and, after many trials, I came to the conclusion, that, with no other guide than a mere inspection of the copy books of the pupils, I could tell whether drawing were taught in the school or not; so uniformly superior was the handwriting in those schools where drawing was taught in connection with it. On seeing this, I was reminded of that saying of Pestalozzi, somewhat too strong, that "without drawing there can be no writing."

But suppose it were otherwise, and that learning to draw retarded the acquisition of good penmanship, how richly would the learner be compensated for the sacrifice. Drawing, of itself, is an expressive and beautiful language. A few strokes of the pen or pencil will often represent to the eye what no amount of words, however well chosen, can communicate. For the master architect, for the engraver, the engineer, the pattern designer, the draughtsman, moulder, machine builder, or head mechanic of any kind, all acknowledge that this art is essential and indispensable. But there is no department of business or condition in life, where the accomplishment would not be of utility. Every man should be able to plot a field, to sketch a road or a river, to draw the outlines of a simple machine, a piece of household furniture, or a farming utensil, and to delineate the internal arrangement or construction of a house.

But to be able to represent by lines and shadows what no words can depict, is only a minor part of the benefit of learning to draw. The study of this art develops the talent of observing, even more than that of delineating. Although a man may has but comparatively few occasions to picture forth what he has observed, yet the power of observation should be cultivated by every rational being. The skillful delineator is not only able to describe far better what he has seen, but he sees twice as many things in the world as he would otherwise do. To one whose eyes have never been accustomed to mark the form, color or peculiarities of objects, all external nature is enveloped in a haze, which no sunshine, however bright, will ever dissipate. The light which dispels this obscurity must come from within. Teaching a child to draw, then, is the development in him of a new talent the conferring upon him, as it were, of a new sense by means of which he is not only better enabled to attend to the common duties of life, and to be more serviceable to his fellow-men, but he is more likely to appreciate the beauties and magnificence of nature, which every where reflect the glories of the Creator into his soul. When accompanied by appropriate instruction of a moral and religious character, this accomplishment becomes a quickener to devotion.

With the inventive genius of our people, the art of drawing would be eminently useful. They would turn it to better account than any other people in the world. We now perform far the greater part of our labor by machinery. With the high wages prevalent amongst us, if such were not the case, our whole community would be impoverished. Whatever will advance the mechanic and manufacturing arts, therefore, is especially important here; and whatever is important for men to know, as men, should be learned by children in the schools.

But whatever may be said of the importance of this art, as it regards the community at large, its value to a school-teacher can hardly be estimated.

If the first exercises in reading were taught as they should be; if the squares of the multiplication table were first to be drawn on the blackboard, and then to be filled up by the pupils, as they should see on what reason the progressive increase of the numbers is founded; if geography were taught from the beginning, as it should be, by constant delineations upon the blackboard; then every teacher, even of the humblest school, ought to be acquainted with the art of linear drawing, and be able to form all the necessary figures and diagrams, not only with correctness but with rapidity. But in teaching navigation, surveying, trigonometry, geometry, &c.; in describing the mechanical powers, in optics, in astronomy, in the various branches of natural philosophy, and especially in physiology, the teacher who has a command of this art, will teach incomparably better, and incomparably faster than if he were ignorant of it. I never saw a teacher in a German school make use of a ruler or any other mechanical aid, in drawing the most nice or complicated figures. I recollect no instance in which he was obliged to efface a part of a line because it was too long, or to extend it because it was too short. If squares or triangles were to be formed, they came out squares or triangles without any overlapping or deficiency. Here was not only much time gained, or saved, but the pupils had constantly before their eyes these examples of celerity and perfectness, as models for imitation. No one can doubt how much more correctly, as well as more rapidly, a child's mind will grow in view of such models of ease and accuracy, than if only slow, awkward, and clumsy movements are the patterns constantly held before it.

I saw handwriting taught in various ways. The most common mode for young children was that of writing on the blackboard for their imitation. In such cases, the copy was always beautifully written, and the lesson preceded by instructions and followed by corrections.

Another method which has had some currency in Germany, is this: If the mark to be copied is a simple straight line, thus, / /, the teacher says *one*, *one*, as words of command; and at each ennunciation of the word, the pupils make a mark simultaneously. The teacher accelerates or retards his utterance according to the degree of facility the class has acquired. If the figure to be copied consists of an upward and downward stroke, thus, *7 7*, the teacher says, *one, two; one, two*, (one for the upward, the other for the downward motion of the hand;) at first slowly, afterwards more rapidly. When the figure consists of three strokes, thus *ı*, he pronounces *one*, *two*, *three*, as before. Letters are formed in the same way.

A supposed advantage of this method consists in its retarding the motions of those who would otherwise write too fast, and hastening those who would write too slow. But for these purposes, the teacher must see that all keep time, otherwise the advantage is lost. And, on the whole, there is so much difference between the natural quickness of perception and of motion in different pupils, that there can be no such thing as a universal standard. Some scholars, whose thoughts and muscles are of electric speed, would be embarrassed by being obliged to write slowly; and others could not keep step, though the music played only common time. Neither in their physical nor in their spiritual natures, does the speed of children seem to have been graduated by any one clock.

In the schools I saw, orthography, punctuation, and the use of capitals, were early connected with the exercise of writing.

GEOGRAPHY.

The practice seemed to be uniform, however, of beginning with objects perfectly familiar to the child; the school-house with the grounds around it, the home with its yards or gardens, and the street leading from the one to the other. First of all, the children were initiated into the idea of space, without which we can know no more of geography than we can of history without ideas of time. Mr. Carl Ritter, of Berlin, probably the greatest geographer now living, expressed a decided opinion to me, that this was the true mode of beginning.

Children, too, commence this study very early; soon after entering school; but no notions are given them which they are not perfectly able to comprehend, reproduce, and express.

I found geography taught almost wholly from large maps suspended against the walls, and by delineations on the blackboard. And here, the skill of teachers and pupils in drawing did admirable service. The teacher traced the outlines of a country on the suspended map, or drew one upon the blackboard, accompanying the exhibition by an oral lecture; and, at the next recitation, the pupils were expected to repeat what they had seen and heard. And, in regard to the natural divisions of the earth, or the political boundaries of countries, a pupil was not considered as having giving any proof that he had a correct image in his mind, until he could go to the blackboard, and reproduce it from the ends of his fingers. I witnessed no lesson unaccompanied by these tests.

I will describe, as exactly as I am able, a lesson which I heard given to a class a little advanced beyond the elements; remarking that, though I heard many lessons giving on the same plan, none of them were signalized by the rapidity and effect of the one I am about to describe.

The teacher stood by the blackboard, with the chalk in his hand. After casting his eye over the class to see that all were ready, he struck at the middle of the board. With a rapidity of hand which my eye could hardly follow, he made a series of those short, divergent lines, or shadings, employed by map-engravers to represent a chain of mountains. He had scarcely turned an angle, or shot off a spur, when the scholars began to cry out, Carpathian mountains, Hungary; Black Forest mountains, Wurtemberg; Giant's mountains, (Riesen-Gebirge,) Silesia; Metallic mountains, (Erz-Gebirge,) Pine mountains, (Fichtel-Gebirge,) Central mountains, (Mittel-Gebirge,) Bohemia, &c., &c.

In less than half a minute, the ridge of that grand central elevation which separates the waters that flow north-west into the German ocean, from those that flow north into the Baltic, and south-east into the Black Sea, was presented to view; executed almost as beautifully as an engraving. A dozen crinkling strokes, made in the twinkling of an eye, represented the head-waters of the great rivers which flow in different directions from that mountainous range; while the children, almost as eager and excited as though they had actually seen the torrents dashing down the mountain sides, cried out, Danube, Elbe, Vistula, Oder, &c. The next moment I heard a succession of small strokes or taps, so rapid as to be almost indistinguishable, and hardly had my eye time to discern a large number of dots made along the margins of the rivers, when the shout of Lintz, Vienna, Prague, Dresden, Berlin, &c., struck my ear. At this point in the exercise, the spot which had been occupied on the blackboard was nearly a circle, of which the starting point, or place where the teacher first began, was the center; but now a few additional strokes around the circumference of the incipient continent, extended the mountain ranges outwards toward the plains; the children responding the names of the countries in which they respectively lay. With a few more flourishes the rivers flowed onwards toward their several terminations, and by another succession of dots, new cities sprang up along their banks. By this time the children had become as much excited as though they had been present at a world-making. They rose in their seats, they flung out both hands, their eyes kindled, and their voices became almost vociferous as they cried out the names of the different places, which, under the magic of the teacher's crayon, rose into view. Within ten minutes from the commencement of the lesson, there stood upon the blackboard a beautiful map of Germany, with its mountains, principal rivers and cities, the coast of the German ocean, of the Baltic and the Black seas; and all so accurately proportioned, that I think only slight errors would have been found had it been subjected to the test of a scale of miles. A part of this time was taken up in correcting a few mistakes of the pupils; for the teacher's mind seemed to be in his ear as well as in his hand, and notwithstanding the astonishing celerity of his movements, he detected erroneous answers and turned round to correct them. The rest of the recitation consisted in questions and answers respecting productions, climate, soil, animals, &c., &c.

Many of the cosmogonists suppose that after the creation of the world, and when its whole surface was as yet fluid, the solid continents rose gradually from beneath the sea: first the loftiest peak of the Andes, for instance, emerged from the deep, and as they reached a higher and a higher point of elevation, the rivers began to flow down their sides, until at last—the lofty mountains having attained their height, the mighty rivers their extent and volume, and the continent its amplitude—cultivation began, and cities and towns were built. The lesson I have described was a beautiful illustration of that idea, with one advantage over the original scene itself, that the spectator had no need of waiting through all the geological epochs to see the work completed.

Compare the effect of such a lesson as this, both as to the amount of the knowledge communicated, and the vividness and of course the permanence of the ideas obtained, with a lesson where the scholars look out a few names of places on a lifeless atlas, but never send their imaginations abroad over the earth; and where the teacher sits listlessly down before them to interrogate them from a book, in which all the questions are printed at full length, to supersede on his part all necessity of knowledge.

EXERCISES IN THINKING. KNOWLEDGE OF NATURE. KNOWLEDGE OF THE WORLD. KNOWLEDGE OF SOCIETY.

In the "Study-Plans" of all the schools in the north of Prussia, I found most, and in some of them all of the above subjects of lessons. To each was assigned its separate hour and place in the routine of exercises. For brevity's sake, however, and because the topics naturally run into each other, I shall attempt to describe them together.

These lessons consisted of familiar conversations between teacher and pupils, on subjects adapted to the age, capacities, and proficiency of the latter. With the youngest classes, things immediately around them; the school-room and the materials of which it had been built; its different parts, as foundation, floor, walls, ceiling, roof, windows, doors, fireplace; its furniture and apparatus; its books, slates, paper; the clothes of the pupils, and the materials from which they were made; their food and play-things; the duties of children to animals, to each other, to their parents, neighbors, to the old, to their Maker; these are specimens of a vast variety of subjects embraced under one or another of the above heads. As the children advanced in age and attainments, and had acquired full and definite notions of the visible and tangible existences around them, and also of time and space, so that they could understand descriptions of the unseen and the remote, the scope of these lessons was enlarged, so as to take in the different kingdoms of nature, the arts, trades and occupations of men, and the more complicated affairs of society.

When visiting the schools in Leipsic, I remarked to the superintendent, that most accomplished educationist, Dr. Vogel, that I did not see on the "Study-Plan" of his schools, the title, "Exercises in Thinking." His reply was, "No; for I consider it a *sin* in any teacher not to lead his pupil to think, in regard to all the subjects he teaches." He did not call it an omission or even a disqualification in a teacher, if he did not awaken thought in the minds of his pupils, but he peremptorily denounced it as a "*sin*." Alas! thought I, what expiation will be sufficient for many of us who have had charge of the young!

It is obvious from the account I have given of these primary lessons, that there is no restriction as to the choice of subjects, and no limits to the extent of information that may be engrafted upon them. What more natural than that a kind teacher should attempt to gain the attention and win the good will of a brisk, eager-minded boy just entering his school, by speaking to him about the domestic animals which he plays with, or tends at home; the dog, the cat, the sheep, the horse, the cow? Yet, without any interruption or overleaping of natural boundaries, this simple lesson may be expanded into a knowledge of all quadrupeds, their characteristics and habits of life, the uses of their flesh, skins, fur, bones, horns, or ivory, the parts of the world where they live, &c., &c. So if a teacher begins to converse with a boy about domestic fowls, there is no limit, save in his own knowledge, until he has exausted the whole subject of ornithology; the varieties of birds, their plumage, their uses, their migratory habits, &c., &c. What more natural than that a benevolent teacher should ask a blushing little girl about the flowers in her vases, or garden at home? and yet, this having been done, the door is opened that leads to all botanical knowledge, to the flowers of all the seasons, and all the zones, to the trees cultivated by the hand of man, or the primeval forests that darken the face of continents. Few children go to school who have not seen a fish; at least, a minnow in a pool. Begin with this, and nature opposes no barrier until the wonders of the deep are exhausted. Let the school-house, as I have said, be the first lesson, and to a mind replenished with knowledge, not only all the different kinds of edifices—the dwelling-house, the church, the court-house, the palace, the temple—are at once associated; but all the different orders of architecture, Corinthian, Ionic, Doric, Egyptian, Gothic, &c., rise to the view. How many different materials have been brought together for the construction of the school-house; stone, wood, nails, glass, bricks, mortar, paints, materials used in glazing, &c., &c. Each one of these belongs to a different department of nature; and when an accomplished teacher has once set foot in any one of these provinces, he sees a thousand interesting objects around him, as it were soliciting his attention. Then each one of these materials has its artificer; and thus all the mechanical trades may be brought under consideration; the house builder's, the mason's, the plumber's, the glazier's, the locksmith's &c. A single article may be viewed under different aspects; as, in speaking of a lock, one may consider the nature and properties of iron; its cohesiveness, malleability, &c., its utility, or the variety of utensils into which it may be wrought; or the conversation may be turned to the particular object and uses of the lock, and upon these a lesson on the rights of property, the duty of honesty, the guilt of theft and robbery, &c., be engrafted. So in speaking of the beauties and riches and wonders of nature—of the revolution of the seasons, the glory of spring, the exuberance of autumn, the grandeur of the mountain, the magnificence of the firmament—the child's mind may be turned to a contemplation of the power and goodness of God. I found these religious aspects of nature to be most frequently adverted to: and was daily delighted with the reverent and loving manner in which the name of the Deity was always spoken, "*Der liebe Gott*," the *dear* God, was the universal form of expression; and the name of the Creator of heaven and earth was hardly ever spoken, without this epithet of endearment.

It is easy also to see that a description of the grounds about the school-house or the paternal mansion, and of the road leading from one of these places to the other, is the true starting point of all geographical knowledge; and, this once begun, there is no terminus, until all modern and ancient geography, and all travels and explorations by sea and land, are exhausted. So the boy's nest of marbles may be the nucleus of all mineralogy; his top, his kite, his little wind-wheel or water-wheel, the salient point of all mechanics and technology; and the stories he has heard about the last king or the aged king, the first chapter in universal history.

I know full well that the extent and variety of subjects said to be taught to young children in the Prussian schools, have been often sneered at.

In a late speech, made on a public occasion, by one of the distinguished politicians in our country, the idea of teaching the natural sciences in our common schools was made a theme for ridicule. Let it be understood in what manner an accomplished teacher may impart a great amount of useful knowledge on these subjects, and perhaps awaken minds which may hereafter adorn the age, and benefit mankind by their discoveries, and it will be easily seen to which party the ridicule most justly attaches. "What," says the objectors, "teach children botany, and the unintelligible and almost unspeakable names, Monandria, Diandria, Triandria, &c.; or zoology, with such technical terms as Mollusca, Crustacea, Vertebrata, Mammalia, &c., the thing is impossible!" The Prussian children are not thus taught. For years, their lessons are free from all the technicalities of science. The knowledge they already possess about common things is made the nucleus around which to collect more; and the language with which they are already familiar becomes the medium through which to communicate new ideas, and by which, whenever necessary, to explain new terms. There is no difficulty in explaining to a child, seven years of age, the distinctive marks by which nature intimates to us, at first sight, whether a plant is healthful or poisonous; or those by which, on inspecting the skeleton of an animal that lived thousands of years ago, we know whether it lived upon grass, or grain, or flesh. It is in this way that the pupil's mind is carried forward by an actual knowledge of things, until the time arrives for giving him classifications and nomenclatures. When a child knows a great many particular or individual things, he begins to perceive resemblances between some of them; and they then naturally assort themselves, as it were, in his mind, and arrange themselves into different groups. Then, by the aid of a teacher, he perfects a scientific classification among them, bringing into each group all that belong to it. But soon the number of individuals in each group becomes so numerous, that he wants a cord to tie them together, or a vessel in which to hold them. Then, from the nomenclature of science, he receives a name which binds all the individuals of that group into one, ever afterwards. It is now that he perceives the truth and the beauty of classification and nomenclature. An infant that has more red and white beads than it can hold in its hands, and to prevent them from rolling about the floor and being lost, collects them together, putting the white in one cup and the red in another, and sits and smiles at its work, has gone through with precisely the same description of mental process that Cuiver and Linneus did, when they summoned the vast varieties of the animal and vegetable kingdoms into their spiritual presence, and commanded the countless hosts to arrange themselves into their respective genera, orders, and species.

Our notions respecting the expediency or propriety of introducing the higher branches, as they are called, into our common schools, are formed from a knowledge of our own school teachers, and of the habits that prevail in most of the schools themselves. With us, it too often happens that if a higher branch, geometry, natural philosophy, zoology, botany, is to be taught, both teacher and class must have text-books. At the beginning of these text-books, all the technical names and definitions belonging to the subject are set down. These, before the pupil has an practical idea of their meaning, must be committed to memory. The book is then studied chapter by chapter. At the bottom of each page, or at the ends of the sections, are questions printed at full length. At the recitations, the teacher holds on by these leading-strings. He introduces no collateral knowledge. He exhibits no relation between what is contained in the book, and other kindred subjects, or the actual business of men and the affairs of life. At length the day of examination comes. The pupils rehearse from memory with a suspicious fluency; or, being asked for some useful application of their knowledge, some practical connection between that knowledge and the concerns of life, they are silent, or give some ridiculous answer, which at once disparages science and gratifies the ill-humor of some ignorant satirist. Of course, the teaching of the higher branches falls into disrepute in the minds of all sensible men, as, under such circumstances, it ought to do. But the Prussian teacher has no book. He needs none. He teaches from a full mind. He cumbers and darkens the subject with no technical phraseology. He observes what proficiency the child has made, and then adapts his instructions, both in quality and amount, to the necessity of the case. He answers all questions. He solves all doubts. It is one of his objects, at every recitation, so to present ideas, that they shall start doubts and provoke questions. He connects the subject of each lesson with all kindred and collateral ones; and shows its relations to the every-day duties and business of life; and should the most ignorant man, or the most destitute vagrant in society, ask him "of what use such knowledge can be?" he will prove to him, in a word, that some of his own pleasures or means of subsistence are dependent upon it, or have been created or improved by it.

In the meantime, the children are delighted. Their preceptive powers are exercised. Their reflecting faculties are developed. Their moral sentiments are cultivated. All the attributes of the mind within, find answering qualities in the world without. Instead of any longer regarding the earth as a huge mass of dead matter, without variety and without life, its beautiful and boundless diversities of substance, its latent vitality and energies, gradually drawn forth, until, at length, they illuminate the whole soul, challenging its admiration for their utility, and its homage for the bounty of their Creator.

There are other points pertaining to the qualification of teachers, which would perhaps strike a visitor or spectator more strongly than the power of giving the kind of lessons I have described; but probably there is nothing which, at the distance of four thousand miles, would give to a reader or hearer so adequate an idea of intelligence and capacity, as a full understanding of the scope and character of this class of exercises. Suppose, on the one hand, a teacher to be introduced into a school, who is competent to address children on this great range and variety of subjects, and to address them in such a manner as to arouse their curicity, command their attention, and supply them not only with knowledge, but with an inextinguishable love for it; suppose such a teacher to be able to give one, and sometimes two such lessons a day, that is, from two hundred to four hundred lessons in a year, to the same class, and to carry his classes, in this way, through their eight years schooling. On the other hand, suppose a young man coming fresh from the plow, the workshop, or the anvil; or, what is no better, from Greek and Latin classics, and suppose his knowledge on the above enumerated subjects to be divided into four hundred, or even into two hundred parts, and that only one two-hundredth portion of that stock of knowledge should be administered to the children in a day. Let us suppose all this, and we shall have some more adequate idea of the different advantages of children, at the present time, in different parts of the world. In Prussia, the theory, and the practice under it, are, not that three years' study under the best masters qualifies a talented and devoted man to become a teacher, but that three years' of such *general* preparation may qualify one for that *particular* and *daily* preparation which is to be made before meeting a class in school. And a good Prussian teacher no more thinks of meeting his classes without this daily preparation, than a distinguished lawyer or clergyman amongst ourselves would think of managing a cause before court and jury, or preaching a sermon, without special reading and forethought.

It is easy to see, from the above account, how such a variety of subjects can be taught simultaneously in school, without any interference with each other; nay, that the "common bond," which, as Cicero says, binds all sciences together, should only increase their unity as it enlarges their number.

BIBLE HISTORY AND BIBLE KNOWLEDGE.

Nothing receives more attention in the Prussian schools than the Bible. It is taken up early and studied systematically. The great events recorded in the Scriptures of the Old and New Testament; the character and lives of those wonderful men, who, from age to age, were brought upon the stage of action, and through whose agency the future history and destiny of the race were to be so much modified; and especially, those sublime views of duty and of morality which are brought to light in the Gospel, these are topics of daily and earnest inculcation, in every school. To these, in some schools, is added the history of the Christian religion, in connection with cotemporary civil history. So far as the Bible lessons are concerned, I can ratify the strong statements made by Professor Stowe, in regard to the absence of sectarian instruction, or endeavors at proselytism. The teacher being amply possessed of a knowledge of the whole chain of events, and of all biographical incidents; and bringing to the exercise a heart glowing with love to man, and with devotion to his duty as a former of the character of children, has no necessity or occasion to fall back upon the formulas of a creed. It is when a teacher has no knowledge of the wonderful works of God, and of the benevolence of the design in which they were created; when he has no power of explaining and applying the beautiful incidents in the lives of prophets and apostles, and especially, the perfect example which is given to men in the life of Jesus Christ; it is then, that, in attempting to give religious instruction, he is, as it were, constrained to recur again and again to the few words or sentences of his form of faith, whatever that faith may be; and, therefore, when giving the second lesson, it will be little more than a repetition of the first, and the two-hundredth lesson, at the end of the year, will differ from that at the beginning only in accumulated wearisomeness and monotony.

There are one or two facts, however, which Professor Stowe has omitted to mention, and without a knowledge of which, one would form very erroneous ideas respecting the character of some of the religious instruction in the Prussian schools. In all the Protestant schools, Luther's Catechism is regularly taught; and in all the Roman Catholic schools, the Catechism of that communion. When the schools are mixed, they have combined literary with seperate religious instruction; and here all the doctrines of the respective denominations are taught early and most assiduously. I well remember hearing a Roman Catholic priest inculcating upon a class of very young children the doctrine of transubstantiation. He illustrated it with the miracle of the water changed to wine, at the marriage feast in Cana; and said that he who could turn water into wine, could turn his own blood into the same element, and also his body into bread to be eaten with it. Contrary, then, to the principles of our own law, sectarianism is taught in all Prussian schools; but it is nevertheless true, as Professor Stowe says, that the Bible can be taught, and is taught, without it.

MUSIC.

All Prussian teachers are masters not only of vocal, but of instrumental music, One is as certain to see a violin as a blackboard, in every school-room. Generally speaking, the teachers whom I saw, played upon the organ also, and some of them upon the piano and other instruments. Music was not only taught in school as an accomplishment, but used as a recreation. It is a moral means of great efficacy. Its practice promotes health; it disarms anger, softens rough and turbulent natures, socializes, and brings the whole mind, as it were, into a state of fusion, from which condition the teacher can mould it into what forms he will, as it cools and hardens.

All these subjects I have enumerated, were taught in all the schools I visited, whether in city or country, for the rich or for the poor. In the lowest school in the smallest and obscurest village, or for the poorest class in over-crowded cities; in the schools connected with pauper establishments, with houses of correction or with prisons, in all these, there was a teacher *of mature age*, of simple unaffected and decorous manners, benevolent in his expression, kind and genial in his intercourse with the young, and of such attainments and resources as qualified him not only to lay down the abstract principles of the above range of studies, but, by familiar illustration and apposite example, to commend them to the attention of the children.

Although the foregoing account of primary instruction in Germany, was drawn from observations mainly in the schools of Prussia and Saxony, it is, in its main features, applicable to primary schools in the other German States. On this point, Mr. Kay bears the following emphatic testimony in his valuable contribution to our knowledge of the social and educational condition of Europe*—a work, from which we shall have occasion to quote largely in giving an account of the school systems of Switzerland and the several German States.

In Bavaria, Wirtemburg, the Duchy of Baden, and Nassau, as much, and in Wirtemberg and Baden perhaps even more, has been done to promote the intelligence, morality, and civilization of the lower orders of society, than in Prussia. In each of these countries, every village has a good school-house, and *at least* one learned and practically efficient teacher, who has been educated for several years at a college; every town has several well-organized schools, sufficiently large to receive all the children of the town, who are between the ages of six and fourteen; each of these schools contains from four to ten class-rooms, and each class-room is under the direction of a highly educated teacher.

In each of these countries, every parent is *obliged* to educate his children, either at home or at some school, the choice of means being left to himself. In none of these countries are children left to grow up in vicious ignorance or with debasing habits.

In none of these countries, is there any class of children analogous to that, which swarms in the back streets, alleys, and gutters of our great cities and towns, and from which our paupers, our disaffected, and our criminals grow up, and from which our "ragged schools" are filled. All the children are intelligent, polite, clean, and neatly dressed, and grow up from their sixth to their fourteenth year under the teaching and influence of educated men.

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* *The Social Condition and Education of the People in England and Europe*; showing the results of the primary schools and of the division of landed property in foreign countries, by Joseph Kay, Esq., M. A., of Trinity College, Cambridge; Barrister-at-law; and late Traveling Bachelor of the University of Cambridge. London: Longman, Brown, Green, and Longmans. 1850.

In each of these countries a sufficient number of normal colleges has been founded, to enable it to educate a sufficient supply of teachers for the parishes and towns.

In each of these countries, all the schools of every sect and party, private as well as public, are open to public inspection, and are visited several times every year by learned men, whose business it is to examine both teachers and scholars, and to give the government, the chambers, and the country, a full and detailed account of the state, condition, character, and progress of every school, so that parents may know where to send their children with safety; that good teachers may be encouraged, rewarded, and promoted; and that unworthy teachers may not be suffered to continue long in their situations.

In each of these countries, the laws prohibit any person being a teacher of any school, until he has proved his efficiency to the committee of professors, appointed by the state to examine candidates, and until he has laid before such committee testimonials of character from his religious minister, his neighbors, and the professors of the college at which he was educated.

I can give a traveler, who is desirous of comprehending at one short view the workings of the German and Swiss systems of popular education, no better advice than to direct him to notice the state of the streets in any German or Swiss town, which he happens to visit; no matter where it be, whether on the plains of Prussia or Bavaria, on the banks of the Rhine, in the small towns of the Black Forrest, or in the mountainous cantons of Alpine Switzerland, no matter where, let him only walk through the streets of such a town in the morning or the afternoon, and count the number of children to be found there above the age of four or five, or let him stand in the same streets, when the children are going to or returning from the schools, and let him examine their cleanly appearance, the good quality, the excellent condition, and the cleanliness of their clothing, the condition of the lesson books they are carrying, the happiness and cheerfulness, and, at the same time, the politeness and ease of their manners; he will think he sees the children of the rich; but let him follow them home, and he will find that many of them are the offspring of the poorest artizans and laborers of the town. If that one spectacle does not convince him of the magnitude of the educational efforts of Germany, and of the happy results which they are producing, let him go no further, for nothing he can further see will teach him. Let him then come home, and rejoice in the condition of our poor; but, should he start at this extraordinary spectacle, as I have seen English travelers do, to whom I have pointed out this sign of advanced and advancing civilization, let him reflect, that, this has been effected, spite of all the obstacles which impede ourselves. Bigotry and ignorance have cried their loudest; Romanists have refused co-operation with Protestants, Protestants with Romanists, and yet they have co-operated. There has been the same strong jealousy of all government interference, the same undefined and ill-digested love of liberty, and there has been the same selfish fear of retarding the development of physical resources. In Bavaria, the war has been waged between Romanists and Protestants; in Argovie, opposition has been raised by the manufacturers; in Lucerne, by the religious parties, and by the political opponents of the government; and in Baden, the difficulties have been aggravated by the numbers of Jews, whom both Romanists and Protestants hated to receive into alliance, even more than they disliked to co-operate among themselves. But in all these countries the great principle has finally triumphed; and all parties have yielded some little of their claims, in the full conviction, that a day is dawning upon Europe, fraught with the most overwhelming evils for that country which has not prepared for its approach.

Whether the methods by which any of these different countries are carrying out their great design, are in any way applicable to this country or not, I shall not stop to consider, my desire being merely to show how different countries, with different degrees of political freedom, with different political constitutions, whose people profess different religious tenets, where Protestants of different sects, Roman Catholics, and Jews, are mingled up in every kind of proportion, have all managed to overcome difficulties precisely similar to those which stand in our way, and have all agreed to labor together to educate their poor. For it is a great fact, however much we may be inclined to doubt it, that throughout Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria, Bohemia, Wirtemburg, Baden, Hesse Darmstadt, Hesse Cassel, Gotha, Nassau, Hanover, Denmark, Switzerland, Norway, and the Austrian Empire, ALL the children are actually, at this present time, attending school, and are receiving a careful, religious, moral, and intellectual education, from highly educated and efficient teachers. Over the vast tract of country, which I have mentioned, as well as in Holland and the greater part of France, *all* the children above six years of age are daily acquiring useful knowledge and good habits under the *influence* of moral, religious, and learned teachers. ALL the youth of the greater part of these countries, below the age of twenty-one years, can read, write, and cipher, and know the Bible history, and the history of their own country. No children are left idle and dirty in the streets of the towns; there is no class of children to be compared, in any respect, to the children who frequent our "ragged schools;" all the children, even of the poorest parents, are, in a great part of these countries, in dress, appearance, cleanliness, and manners, as polished and civilized as the children of our middle classes; the children of the poor in Germany are so civilized that the rich often send their children to the schools intended for the poor; and, lastly, in a great part of Germany and Switzerland, the children of the poor are receiving a *better* education than that given in England to the children of the greater part of our middle classes! These facts deserve to be well considered.

And let it be remembered that these great results have been attained, notwithstanding obstacles *at least* as great as those which make it so difficult for us to act. Are they religious differences which hinder us? Look at Austria, Bavaria, and the Prussian Rhine provinces, and the Swiss cantons of Lucerne and Soleure. Will any one say, that the religious difficulties in those countries are less than those which exist in our own? Is the sectarianism of the Jesuits of Lucerne, or of the priests of Bavaria, of a more yielding character toward the Protestant "heretics," than that of one Protestant party in England toward another? And yet, in each of these countries, the difficulties arising from religious differences have been overcome, and *all* their children are brought under the influence of a *religious* education, without any religious party having been offended. But are they political causes, which prevent us proceeding in this great work, in which nearly all Europe has so long preceded us, notwithstanding that we need it more than all the European nations put together? Are they political causes, I ask? I answer by again referring my readers to the countries I have enumerated. Under the democratic governments of the Swiss cantons, where it is the people who rule and legislate; under the constitutional governments of Saxony, Wirtemburg, and Baden, which were framed more or less upon the English model, and where the people have long had a direct influence upon the government; under the constitutional governments of France and Holland, and under all the different grades of absolute rule which existed but a few months since in Prussia, the German dukedoms, and the Austrian states, the difficulties of the question have long been overcome, and with such entire satisfaction to all parties, that among the present representatives of the people, no member has ever been heard to express a desire for the change of the laws which relate to primary education.

But once again; perhaps there are some who say, but there is no country which is troubled, as we are, by the union of both religious and political difficulties. I again refer my readers to the cases of Holland and Switzerland. They will find in these countries the same strong love of independence of action, which we boast so proudly and so justly. They will find also, not only strong religious feuds existing among the Protestants themselves, and pushed to the most shameful extremities, as in the case of the canton of Vaud, from which one religious party has lately been driven as exiles, but they will find the still more formidable differences of the Protestants and Catholics arrayed against each other, and seemingly preventing all union on any subject whatsoever; and yet, in all these various countries, differing as they do in the state of their religious parties, and of their political regulations, in *all* of them, I say, have *all* parties consented to join on this one great and important question, THE EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE.

But there are some who say, that if our means of direct education are worse, yet that our means of indirect education are better than those of other countries, and that if our people have not schools and good teachers, they have long had a free press, the right of assembling together for political discussion, plenty of cheap and very liberal journals, good reports of all the debates of our Houses of Legislature, and a literature free in its spirit, suggestive in its writings, and any thing but one-sided in its views of political and social questions, and that all this serves to stimulate the intellectual energies of the people. As far as regards the middle classes, this is all very true; but, as regards the poor, it is ridiculously false. Most of our poor are either wholly without education, or else possess so little as to be entirely out of the sphere of such influences, as those I have enumerated. What good can one of our boorish peasants gain from cheap literature, free parliamentary debates, free discussion, and liberal journals? What advantage is it to a starving man that there is bread in the baker's shop, if he has not wherewith to buy? What good is cheap literature and free discussion to a poor peasant who can neither read nor think? He starves in the midst of plenty, and starves too with a curse upon his lips.

It is utterly false to argue that the peasants would provide themselves with schools and education, if education would improve their condition in society. We can never hope to see the peasants supply themselves with schools. They never have done so in any country, they never will do so in our own. Such a step implies in them a great prior development of the intellectual and moral faculties; a development which can only be obtained by means of education. The peasants are neither wise enough, nor rich enough, to erect or support schools for themselves, and should government refuse either to do it for them, or to oblige all classes to assist the poor to accomplish this great work, we may rest assured that another century will see no further advances than we have made at present; our schools are for the most part totally unfitted for their purpose, and our teachers the most ignorant, ill-paid, and least respected set of men in the community. Other countries have long since recognized these truths, and acted upon them.

Whilst in England we have been devoting most of our energies to the increase of our national wealth, the Germans and Swiss have been engaged in the noble undertaking of attempting to raise the character and social position of their poorer classes. To effect this, they have not vainly imagined that schools alone were sufficient, but to the accomplishment of this great end, every social institution and every social regulation has been rendered subservient. They began, it is true, by raising schools, and educating teachers; but they have continued this great work by reforming their prisons and criminal codes; by facilitating the transfer and division of their lands; by simplifying their legal processes; by reforming their ecclesiastical establishments; by entirely changing the mediæval and illiberal constitutions of their universities and public schools; by improving the facilities of internal communication; and, lastly, by opening the highest and most honorable offices of the state to all worthy aspirants, no matter of how low an origin.

Nor have their labors in the cause of social reform diminished, as there was seemingly less immediate need for them. On the contrary, to a traveler in these countries, who has not acquainted himself with all that has been going on there for the last thirty years, they would seem to be only now commencing, so vigorous and universal are the efforts which are *at this moment* being made.

It is doubtless true, that the social polity of a country should be so ordered, that the whole life of any of its members should be a progressive and continued religious, moral, and intellectual education; but it is no less certain that this great work, if it is ever to have a commencement, must begin at home, and be continued, in the case of the peasant, in the village school, under the superintendence of the religious minister and village teacher, or it can never be accomplished at all. True it is, that at first the evil influence of the home will be stronger than the good one of the teacher and the school. But still, if he understand the conduct of his important work, he will know how to awaken those principles which, it may be, lie dormant, but which nevertheless exist in every child's mind, and which, if once aroused, would be certain in some degree to mitigate the evil influences of home. Thus might we hope, that the cottage firesides of the next generation would prove less injurious than those of the present to the children, who will cluster around them, and that the school would have an auxiliary, and not an antagonist, in the powerful, though now, alas! too often misdirected influences of home. It is only when we have attained this happy result, that we can hope to realize the full benefits which education is capable of conferring, and which, in other lands, it is at this day conferring upon the people.

So long as the early *domestic* training is in direct opposition to the education of the schools, so long must the improvement in education be very slow; but, however slow, it is the only sure means we have of counteracting the effects of a vicious domestic training, and of cleansing the very fount of immorality. The laborer is occupied from twilight on to twilight, and the religious ministers have but few opportunities of bringing higher influences to bear upon him. Those, too, who most need improvement, are generally the most unwilling to receive it; and those whose homes act most injuriously on the younger inmates, are precisely those, who oppose most strenuously the entry of the religious minister, and who are most rarely brought under any ennobling influence whatever. Thus it often happens, that the only way by which we can introduce reform into a home, is through the children; for, most happily, there is among the poor such a great idea of the benefits to be derived from education, that it very rarely happens that the parent can not be persuaded to send his child to school, *when he is enabled to do so.*

It is delightful to see how thoroughly this truth has been recognized in Western Europe. From the shores of the Baltic and the North Sea to the foot of the great Alpine range, and from the Rhine to the Danube, *all* the children of both rich and poor are receiving *daily* instruction, under the surveillance of their religious ministers, from long and most carefully educated teachers. Throughout the plains of Prussia, Bohemia, and Bavaria, among the hills and woods of Saxony and central Germany, in the forests and rich undulating lands of Wirtemburg and Baden, in the deep and secluded Alpine valleys of Switzerland and the Tyrol, in most of the provinces of the Austrian empire, throughout Holland, Denmark, and almost the whole of France, and even in the plains of Italian Lombardy, there is scarcely a single parish, which does not possess its school-house and its one or two teachers. The school buildings are often built in really an extravagant manner; and in Switzerland and South Germany, the village school is generally the finest erection of the neighborhood. In the towns the expenditure on these monuments of a nation's progress is still more remarkable. Here the municipal authorities generally prefer to unite several schools for the sake of forming one complete one. This is generally erected on the following plan: A large house is built of three or four stories in height, with commodious play yards behind. The one or two upper stories are used as apartments for the teachers; the lower rooms are set apart for the different classes. A town school has generally from *eight* to *ten*, and sometimes twelve or fourteen, of these class-rooms, each of which is capable of containing from 80 to 100 children. An educated teacher is appointed to manage each class, so that there is generally a staff of at least *eight* teachers connected with each town school of Germany, and I have seen schools with as many as twelve and fourteen teachers. The rooms are filled with desks, maps, and all the apparatus which the teachers can require for the purposes of instruction. I generally noticed, on entering a small German or Swiss town, that next to the church, the finest building was the one set apart for the education of the children.

It is impossible to estimate the enormous outlay which Germany has devoted to the erection and improvement of school-houses alone, during the last fifteen years. In the towns, hardly any of the old and inefficient buildings now remain, except where they have been improved and enlarged. In Munich, I directed my conductor to lead me to the worst school buildings in the city, and I found all the class-rooms measuring fourteen feet high by about twenty-five square, and ten of such class-rooms in each school-house, each of which rooms was under the constant direction of an educated teacher. In whatever town I happened to be staying, I always sought out the worst, in preference to the best schools. In Berlin, the worst I could find contained four class-rooms, each eight feet in height, and about fifteen feet square; and in the Grand Duchy of Baden I found that the Chambers had passed a law prohibiting any school-house being built, the rooms of which were not fourteen feet high.

Throughout Germany no expense seems to have been spared to improve the materials of popular instruction.

This could never have been effected had not the expenses of such an immense undertaking been equally distributed over all the parishes of the different states. The burden being thus divided amongst all, is not felt by any; but had the government started in the vain hope of being able to bear even a third of the expense, popular education would have been no further advanced in Germany than in England. But wiser, or more interested in the real success of the undertaking than ourselves, the governments of the different states have obliged each province to provide for the expenses necessary for its own primary education.

The systems, so far from having been systems of excessive centralization, leaving no freedom of action to the parishes, have been always and still are *essentially* parochial systems, merely under the surveillance, and subject to the check of the central authority. It is the parishes and towns, which tax themselves for educational purposes; it is the parishioners and citizens, who elect their own teachers; it is the parishioners and citizens, who pay their own teachers, and provide all the materials for the education of their own poor; it is the parishioners and citizens, who determine whether they will have separate schools for their different religious sects, or common schools for them all; it is the parishioners, who choose the sites of their school-houses, and the outlay they will make on their erection; and although they have not the power of dismissing a teacher after they have once elected him, without first showing to government a sufficient ground for such a step, yet they are afforded every facility of forwarding any complaints they may have to make of any teacher they have elected, to the educational authorities appointed to judge such matters, and to protect the teachers from the effects of mere personal animosities or ignorance.

Germany will one day be lauded by all Europe, as the inventor of a system securing, in the best possible manner, guidance by the greatest intelligence of the country, the cheapest manner of working, the fostering of local activity and of local sympathies, and the cordial assistance of the religious ministers.

Disputes about separate or mixed schools are unheard of in Prussia, because every parish is left to please itself which kind it will adopt. One of the leading Roman Catholic Counsellors of the Educational Bureau in Berlin assured me, that they never experienced any difficulty on this point. "We always," he said, "encourage separate schools when possible, as we think religious instruction can be promoted better in separate than in mixed schools; but, of course, we all think it better to have mixed schools, than to have no schools at all; and when we can not have separate schools we are rejoiced to see the religious sects uniting in the support of a mixed one. When mixed schools are decided on by the parochial committees, the teacher is elected by the most numerous of the two sects; or, if two teachers are required, one is elected by one sect, and the other by the other; and in this case each conducts the religious education of the children of his own sect. But when only one teacher is elected, the children of those parents, who differ from him in religious belief, are permitted to be taken from the school during the religious lessons, on condition that their parents make arrangements for their religious instruction by their own ministers."

I went to Prussia with the firm expectation, that I should hear nothing but complaints from the peasants, and that I should find the school nothing but a worthy offshoot of an absolute government. To test whether this really was the case or not, as well as to see something of the actual working of the system in the country districts, I traveled alone through different parts of the Rhine provinces for four weeks before proceeding to the capital. During the whole of my solitary rambles, I put myself as much as possible into communication with the peasants and with the teachers, for the purpose of testing the actual state of feeling on this question. Judge, then, of my surprise, when I assure my readers that, although I conversed with many of the very poorest of the people, and with both Romanists and Protestants, and although I always *endeavored* to elicit expressions of discontent, I never once heard, in any part of Prussia, one word spoken by any of the peasants against the educational regulations. But on the contrary, I every where received daily and hourly proofs, of the most unequivocal character, of the satisfaction and real pride with which a Prussian, however poor he may be, looks upon the schools of his locality.

Often and often have I been answered by the poor laborers, when asking them whether they did not dislike being *obliged* to educate their children, "Why should

I? The schools are excellent; the teachers are very learned and good men; and then think how much good our children are gaining; they behave better at home, they make our families all the happier, and they are much better able in after-life to earn their own livelihood. No, no; we do not dislike the schools. We know too well how much good our children are gaining from them." I have heard this said over and over again in different parts of Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria, Wirtemburg, and Baden; and, indeed, I may add, that throughout Germany, I never heard one single word of discontent uttered against these truly liberal and Christian establishments.

Every one of the richer classes, with whom I conversed, corroborated the truth of all that the peasants had told me. I particularly remember a very intelligent teacher at Elberfeld saying to me, "I am quite convinced that, if we had a political revolution to-morrow, none of the peasants would think of wishing to have any great alteration made in the laws which relate to the schools." Recent facts have proved the truth of the assertion.*

Several travelers have fallen into the strangest errors in their investigations on this subject, from having confined their attention to the schools of the capitals, or of one or two other large towns. Very few have seen the working of the system in the villages and remote provinces. But it is there only that a fair idea can be formed of the effects it is producing, and of the manner in which it is regarded by the people themselves.

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* A remarkable proof of the truth of these remarks is, that since the commencement of the German revolutions of 1848, the only change in the educational regulations, which has been demanded by the people, is, that they should be allowed to send their children to the parochial schools free of all expense, and that the present small weekly pence required from the parents for the education of each child should be paid out of the regular parochial school rates. This has been conceded, and the peasants themselves will now as rigorously enforce the compulsory educational regulations, as the Swiss peasants enforce laws *at least* as stringent.

PRUSSIA.

The system of Public Instruction in Prussia embraces three degrees, provided for in three classes of institutions. 1. Primary or Elementary Instruction, conveyed in schools corresponding to our common schools. 2. Secondary Instruction, provided for in Gymnasia, Real Schools and Trade Schools. 3. Superior instruction, communicated in the Universities. We shall confine our attention to Primary Instruction, and shall present a general idea of the system from various authorities.*

As early as the reign of the Elector Joachim the Second, before the kingdom of Prussia existed, except as the Mark of Brandenburg, (1540,) visitors were appointed to inspect the town schools of the Electorate, with express directions to report in relation to the measures deemed necessary for their improvement. In 1545, the same elector appointed a permanent council or board, on church and school matters. In a decree of some length, by the elector John George, (1573,) special sections are devoted to the schools, to teachers and their assistants, and to pupils. It is remarkable as containing a provision for committees of superintendence, consisting of the parish clergyman, the magistrates and two notables, exactly similar in constitution to the present school committees.

In 1777, a decree of Frederick William the First, king of Prussia, enjoins upon parents to send their children to school, provides for the payment of teachers, for the education of poor children, and for catechetical instruction by the parochial clergymen. In 1735, the first regular seminary for teachers in Prussia was established at Stettin, in Pomerania. To induce a better attendance at school, a decree of 1736 requires that the parent of every child between five and twelve years of age, shall pay a certain fee, whether his child goes to school or not; this rule being, as it were, preliminary to the present one of forced attendance. The same decree refers to school-houses erected by associated parishes, showing, that such associations existed previously to the decree for providing public schools; similar associations may even now exist, but they are not numerous, forming exceptions to the general rule requiring each parish to have its public school. The decree provides further for the amount of fees to be paid to the teacher by the pupils, the church, or the state, and for aid to peasants who have more than two children above five years of age, by the payment of the fees of all over this number from a school fund. A rescript of 1738, constitutes the clergy the inspectors of schools.

Bache's "*Report on Education in Europe.*" Cousin's "*Report on Primary Instruction in some of the States of Germany, and particularly in Prussia.*" Prof. Stephens's "*Letter to the Superintendent of Common Schools in Pennsylvania in 1843.*" Recent School Documents from Germany, by Harnisch, Calinich, Jacobi and others.

An attempt to provide more precisely, by law, for the regulation of the schools in Berlin, was made by a decree of 1738. This decree requires that teachers shall be regularly examined by the inspectors of schools before being allowed to teach, and prescribes their acquirements in detail. It directs the opening and closing of the schools with prayers; fixes the hours of daily attendance at from eight to eleven, or seven to ten in the morning, and one to three in the afternoon; prescribes instruction in spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing, and regulates the emoluments and perquisites of the master.

A new impulse was given to public instruction under the reign of Frederick the Great. The regulations drawn up by Hecker, and approved by the king, (1763,) are very precise, and though they have been in part superseded by later decrees, many of their provisions are still in force. They provide for the selection of school books by the consistory; that children shall be sent to school at five years of age, and be kept there until thirteen or fourteen, or until they have made satisfactory attainments in reading and writing, in the knowledge of Christian doctrine, and of such matters as are to be found in their text-books; fix the school-hours, requiring six hours a day for instruction in winter, and three in summer, and one hour of catechetical instruction, besides the Sunday teaching; require that all unmarried persons of the parish shall attend the hour of instruction in the catechism. and besides, receive lessons in reading and writing from the Bible. The regulations provide anew for the schoolmasters' fees, and for the instruction of poor children; require that the schoolmaster shall be furnished from the church-register with a list of all the children of the age to attend school, and that he shall prepare a list of those who are actually in attendance, and submit both to the clergyman, in his periodical visits; direct anew the examination of candidates for the situation of schoolmaster, and refer particularly to the advantages of the seminary opened at Berlin for preparing teachers for the Mark of Brandenburg; lay down minutely the scheme of elementary instruction, and actually specify the time to be devoted to the different branches, with each of the two classes composing the school; require the parochial clergy to visit the schools twice a week, and inspectors of circles to perform the same service at least once a year.

The decree of Frederick regulating the Catholic schools of Silesia, (1765,) is even more particular than the foregoing. It shows the settled policy in regard to educating teachers in special seminaries, now so important a part of the Prussian system, by setting apart certain schools by name for this purpose, requiring the appointment of a director to each, and assigning his duties.

In 1787, Frederick William the Second created a council of instruction, under the title of an "Upper School Board," (Ober-Schul Collegium,) of which the minister of state was president. The council was directed to examine text-books, and to pass upon the licenses of masters, on the reports of the provincial school-boards. They were authorized to erect seminaries for teachers at the government expense, and to frame their regulations; to send out an inspector from their body to examine any part of public instruction, and to rectify all wrongs by a direct order, or through the school-boards of the provinces, the school committees or patrons. This organization remained substantially in force until the separation of the departments of state and instruction in 1817, with the creation of a ministry of public instruction. The attributes of this upper school board, it will be seen, now belong to that council.

The school plan of 1763 was modified by an ordinance of 1794, which introduces geography and natural history in the elementary schools, and refers to vocal music as one of their most important exercises; it also attempts, by minute prescriptions, to introduce uniformity in the methods of instruction and discipline. The regulation for the catholic schools of Silesia was also revised in 1801.

But the most important era in the history of public instruction in Prussia, as well as in other parts of Germany, opens with the efforts put forth by the king and people, to rescue the kingdom from the yoke of Napoleon in 1809. In that year the army was remodeled and every citizen converted into a soldier; landed property was declared free of feudal service; restrictions on freedom of trade were abolished, and the whole state was reorganized. Great reliance was placed on infusing a German spirit into the people by giving them freer access to improved institutions of education, from the common school to the university. Under the councils of Hardenberg, Humbolt, Stein, Altenstein, these reforms and improvements were projected, carried on, and perfected in less than a single generation.

The movement in behalf of popular schools commenced by inviting C. A. Zeller, of Wirtemberg, to Prussia. Zeller was a young theologian, who had studied under Pestalozzi in Switzerland, and was thoroughly imbued with the method and spirit of his master. On his return he had convened the school teachers of Wirtemberg in barns, for want of better accommodations being allowed him, and inspired them with a zeal for Pestalozzi's methods, and for a better education of the whole people. On removing to Prussia, he first took charge of the seminary at Koenigsberg, soon after founded the seminary at Karalene, and went about into different provinces meeting with teachers, holding conferences, visiting schools, and inspiring school officers with the right spirit.

The next step taken was to send a number of young men, mostly theologians, to Pestalozzi's institution at Ifferten, to acquire his method, and on their return to place them in new, or reorganized teachers' seminaries. To these new agents in school improvement were joined a large body ot zealous teachers, and patriotic and enlightened citizens, who, in ways and methods of their own, labored incessantly to confirm the Prussian state, by forming new organs for its internal life, and new means of protection from foreign foes. They proved themselves truly educators of the people. Although the government thus not only encouraged, but directly aided in the introduction of the methods of Pestalozzi into the public schools of Prussia, still the school board in the different provinces sustained and encouraged those who approved and taught on different systems, such as Dinter, Zerrenner, Salzman, and Niemeyer—all, in fine, who labored with a patriotic purpose, thus allowing intellectual freedom, and appropriating whatever was good from all quarters toward the accomplishment of the great purpose.

To infuse a German spirit into teachers and scholars, particular attention was paid to the German language, as the treasury house of German ideas, and to the geography and history of the father land. Music, which was one of Pestalozzi's great instruments of culture, was made the vehicle of patriotic songs, and through them the heart of all Germany was moved to bitter hatred of the conqueror who had desolated her fields and homes, and humbled the pride of her monarchy. All these efforts for the improvement of elementary education, accompanied by expensive modifications in the establishments of secondary and superior education, were made when the treasury was impoverished, and taxes, the most exorbitant in amount, were levied on every province and commune of the kingdom. Prof. Stephens, now of Girard College, in a letter to the Superintendent of Common Schools of Pennsylvania, written from Berlin, at a time when there was at least a talk of the repudiation of state debts, and especially when a distinguished citizen of that state had proposed to divert the money appropriated for the support of common schools to the payment of interest on the state debts, makes the following remarks on this period of the educational history of Prussia.

"Prussia, who furnishes us with a pattern of excellence in the present state of her public schools, affords us a still more brilliant example in the noble policy by which she sustained them in times of great public distress. Of all the nations of Europe, Prussia was reduced to the greatest extremity by the wars of Napoleon. In 1806, at the battle of Jena, her whole military force was annihilated. Within a week after the main overthrow, every scattered division of the army fell into the hands of the enemy. Napoleon took up his quarters in Berlin, emptied the arsenal, and stripped the capital of all the works of art which he thought worthy to be transported to Paris. By the treaty of Tilsit, in 1807, the king of Prussia was deprived of one-half of his dominions. A French army of 200,000 men were quartered upon the Prussians till the end of the year 1808. Prussia must pay to France the sum of 120,000,000 francs, after her principal sources of income had been appropriated by Napoleon, either to himself or his allies. The system of confiscation went so far that even the revenue from the endowments of schools, of poor houses, and the fund for widows, was diverted into the treasury of France. These last were given back in 1811. Foreign loans were made, to meet the exorbitant claims of the conqueror. An army must be created, bridges rebuilt, ruined fortifications in every quarter repaired, and so great was the public extremity that the Prussian ladies, with noble generosity, sent their ornaments and jewels to supply the royal treasury. Rings, crosses, and other ornaments of cast-iron were given in return to all those who had made this sacrifice. They bore the inscription, "*Ich gab gold um eisen*," (I gave gold for iron,) and such Spartan jewels are much treasured at this day by the possessors and their families. This state of things lasted till after the "War of Liberation," in 1812. But it is the pride of Prussia, that at the time of her greatest humiliation and distress, she never for a moment lost sight of the work she had begun in the improvement of her schools.

In 1809, the minister at the head of the section of instruction, writes as follows, to some teachers who had been sent to the institution of Pestalozzi to learn his method and principles of instructing:—"The section of public instruction begs you to believe, and to assure Mr. Pestalozzi, that the cause is the interest of the government, *and of his majesty, the king, personally*, who are convinced that liberation from extraordinary calamities is fruitless, and only to be effected by a thorough improvement of the people's education." In 1809, was established the teachers' seminary in Koenigsberg. In 1810, the seminary at Braunsburg. In 1811, the seminary at Karalene. In 1812, was established at Breslau, the first seminary, completely organized according to the new ideas. In 1809, the most amply endowed and completely organized of all the German universities was founded in Berlin. Professors were called from all parts, and in 1810 the university was in full operation. In 1811, the old university of Breslau was reorganized, and large grants were received from the government for new buildings and new professorships. Is not this noble policy, on the part of an absolute government, at a time when the nation was struggling for existence, a severe rebuke upon the narrow and short-sighted expedients of those republican politicians, who can invent no better way to pay a public debt than by converting into money that institution on which the virtue and intelligence of the people, and the special safety of a republican state, mainly depend?"

The school system of Prussia, is not the growth of any one period, and is not found in one law, but is made up of an aggregation of laws and general regulations, enacted at different times for different provinces, differing in the condition, habits, and religion of the people, and to meet particular wants, as these have been developed in the progress of the system. An attempt was made in 1819 to prepare a general school law for Prussia, but without success. This is considered by Harnisch and other German educators, a great defect, as it leads to great inequalities of education, and great irregularities of administration in different provinces. The ordinance of 1819, however, embraces much of the regulations which are applicable to the whole kingdom, while the peculiarities and details of the system must be looked for in the provincial ordinances and special regulations.

The authorities which administer public instruction in Prussia are the following:—The chief authority is the minister, who joins to this supervision that of ecclesiastical and medical affairs. He is assisted by a council, consisting of a variable number of members, and divided into three sections corresponding to the three charges of the minister. The section for public instruction has its president and secretary, and meets usually twice a week for the transaction of business. One of this body is generally deputed as extraordinary inspector in cases requiring examination, and reports to the minister. The kingdom of Prussia is divided into ten provinces, each of which has its governor, styled Superior President, (Ober-President,) who is assisted by a council called a Consistory, (Consistorium.) This council has functions in the province similar to those in the ministerial council in the kingdom at large, and has direct control of secondary public instruction, and of the schools for the education of primary teachers. It is subdivided into two sections, of which one has charge of the primary instruction in the province, under the title of the School Board, (Provincial Schul Collegium.) The school board, in addition to exercising the general supervision of education in the province, examines the statutes and regulations of the schools, insures the execution of existing laws and regulations, examines text-books, and gives permission for their introduction, after having obtained the approbation of the ministry. This board communicates with the higher authorities, through their president, to whom the reports from the next lower authority, to be presently spoken of, are addressed, and by whom, when these relate to school matters, they are referred to the board for examination.

The next smaller political division to a province, is called a Regency, (Regierungs-Bezirk,) which is again subdivided into Circles, (Kreisin,) and those into parishes, (Gemeinden.) The chief civil authority in the Regency, is a president, who is assisted by a council called also a regency. This body is divided into three sections, having charge respectively of the internal affairs, of direct taxes, and of church and school matters. The last named committee examines and appoints all the teachers of elementary and burgher schools within the regency, superintends the schools, ascertains that the school-houses and churches are duly kept in order, administers the funds of schools and churches, or superintends the administration, when vested in corporations, and collects the church and school fees. This committee is presided over by a member of the regency called the School Councilor, (Schul-rath.) As councilor, he has a seat and voice in the provincial consistory, where he is required to appear at least once a year, and to report upon their affairs in his regency, of which the provincial consistory has the superintendence. It is also his duty to visit the schools, and to satisfy himself that they are in good condition.

The next school authority is the inspector of a circle, who has charge of several parishes. These inspectors are generally clergymen, while the councilors are laymen. Next below the special superintendents is the immediate authority, namely, the school committee, (Schul-Vorstand.) Each parish (Gemeinde) must, by law, have its school, except in special cases, and each school its committee of superintendence, (Schul-Vorstand,) consisting of the curate, the local magistrate, and from two to four notables; the constitution of the committee varying somewhat with the character of the school, whether endowed, entirely supported by the parish, in part by the province or state, or by subscription. The committee appoints a school inspector, who is usually the clergyman of the parish. In cities, the magistrates form the school committee, or school deputation, as it is there called, the curates still acting as local inspectors.

Thus, there is a regular series of authorities, from the master of the school up to the minister, and every part of primary instruction is entirely within the control, of an impulse from the central government, and takes its direction according to the will of the highest authorities. With such a system, under a despotic government, it is obvious that the provisions of any law may be successfully enforced.

The cardinal provisions of the school system of Prussia, are:

First, That all children between the ages of seven and fourteen years shall go regularly to school. This is enforced by the school committee, who are furnished with lists of the children who should attend, and of those actually in the schools under their charge, and who are required to enforce the penalties of the law.

Second, That each parish shall, in general, have an elementary school. When the inhabitants are of different religious persuasions, each denomination has its school, and if not, provision is made for the religious instruction of the children by their own pastors. The erection of the school-house, its furniture, the income of the master. and aid to poor scholars, are all provided for. The requisite sum comes, in part, from parochial funds, and in part from a tax upon householders. When the parish is poor, it is assisted by the circle, by the province, and even by the state. Besides these elementary schools, most of the towns in Prussia have one or more upper primary or burgher schools.

Third, The education of teachers in seminaries, adapted to the grade of instruction to which they intend devoting themselves. Their exemption during their term of study from active military service required of other citizens. A provision for their support during their term of study. A preference given to them over schoolmasters not similarly educated. Their examination previous to receiving a certificate of capacity, which entitles them to become candidates for any vacant post in the province where they have been examined. Their subsequent exemption from active military service. and even from the annual drill of the militia, if they can not, in the opinion of the school inspector, be spared from their duties. Provision for the removal of the incompetent or immoral. A provision for the support of decayed teachers.

Fourth, The authorities which regulate the schools, and render them a branch of the general government, and the teachers in fact, its officers. In a country like Prussia, this connection secures to the teacher the respect due to his station, and thus facilitates the discharge of his important duties.

Under this system of organization and administration, and especially with these arrangements to secure the employment of only properly qualified teachers, the public schools of Prussia have been multiplied to an extent, and have attained within the last quarter of a century a degree of excellence, which has attracted the attention of statesmen, and commanded the admiration of intelligent educators in every part of Christendom. In the provinces, where the improved system has gone into operation with the habits of the people in its favor, it has already reached every human being; and in even the outer provinces, it is, as fast as time sweeps along new generations, replacing the adult population with a race of men and women who have been subjected to a course of school instruction far more thorough and comprehensive than has ever been attempted in any other country. As an evidence of the universality of the system it may be mentioned, that out of 122,897 men of the standing army, in 1846, only two soldiers were found who could not both read and write. But the system aims at much higher results—with nothing short of developing every faculty both of mind and body, of converting creatures of impulse, prejudice, and passion, into thinking and reasoning beings, and of giving them objects of pursuit, and habits of conduct, favorable to their own happiness and that of the community in which they live. The result which may be reasonably anticipated from this system—when the entire adult population have been subjected to its operation, and when the influences of the home and street, of the business and the recreations of society, all unite with those of the school—have not as yet been realized in any section of the kingdom. Every where the lessons of the school-room are weakened, and in a measure destroyed, by degrading national customs, and the inevitable results of a government which represses liberty of thought, speech, occupation, and political action. But the school, if left as good and thorough as it now is, must inevitably change the government, or the government must change the school. And even if the school should be made less thorough than it now is, no governmental interference can turn back the intelligence which has already gone out among the people. It would be easier to return the rain to the clouds, from which it has parted, and which has already mingled with the waters of every rising spring, or reached the roots of every growing plant.

The following Table exhibits the state of the Public Schools of Prussia, according to the latest official returns published by the government.

STATE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN PRUSSIA IN 1846.

Name of the District.	Elementary Schools.						Schools of a higher description than Elementary.								Town Schools.				Normal Schools.	
	No. of Schools.	Teachers.			Scholars in Average Attendance.		Boys. — Number of				Girls. — Number of				Number of				No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.
		Male.		Female.																
		Fixed.	Assistants.		Boys.	Girls.	Schools.	Teachers.	Assistants.	Scholars.	Schools.	Teachers.	Mistresses.	Scholars.	Schools.	Teachers.	Assistants.	Scholars.		
1. Königsberg..	1,598	1,750	178	88	57,892	56,858	17	42	7	1,402	18	93	10	1,828	5	81	15	1,088	8	126
2. Gumbinnen..	1,088	1,131	41	5	40,198	39,044	18	46	..	2,040	19	86	8	1,965	2	15	2	508	2	136
3. Danzig	689	680	24	85	27,083	25,428	9	18	2	700	4	12	12	574	4	29	5	1,009	1	43
4. Marienwerder	1,044	1,097	15	7	40,210	38,008	5	13	2	895	5	17	6	519	4	16	6	384	1	65
5. Posen	1,194	1,860	81	659	67,982	66,124	7	17	..	674	7	17	8	984	5	27	5	572	3	197
6. Bromberg ...	691	747	23	14	29,325	27,623	6	12	..	857	6	8	8	444	1	1	..	29	2	48
7. Hurl Berlin..	108	237	272	184	14,096	12,720	12	27	61	1,797	45	271	188	5,157	9	68	59	2,950	1	38
8. Potsdam	1,547	1,810	44	66	66,224	65,515	87	124	4	6,809	84	80	87	5,598	1	9	1	382	1	95
9. Frankfurt ...	1,265	1,568	81	19	67,476	66,028	14	36	..	1,963	16	44	14	2,623	6	40	2	1,275	2	149
10. Stettin	1,077	1,221	80	32	41,588	39,575	28	80	8	3,955	33	83	36	4,875	2	20	5	529	3	84
11. Coslin	1,028	1,015	70	9	30,855	29,554	14	59	4	2,835	15	30	9	2,579	1	7	..	184	1	51
12. Stralsund....	879	386	10	36	12,421	11,475	11	23	2	766	9	18	12	460	3	6	..	249	2	24
13. Breslau......	1,495	1,551	343	54	89,585	89,276	22	54	19	3,595	7	19	26	2,987	1	11	12	570	1	107
14. Oppeln......	939	1,073	316	4	79,871	79,686	7	17	2	294	4	17	8	345	1	6	2	225	1	118
15. Lugnitz	1,339	1,224	275	5	66,905	68,054	17	46	10	2,025	21	42	47	2,511	3	16	8	571	1	91
16. Magdeburg ..	1,068	1,371	36	51	55,332	55,249	40	87	6	3,847	19	61	55	3,194	4	29	8	801	3	121
17. Merseberg ...	1,258	1,410	52	11	61,807	60,236	18	86	32	6,844	21	95	29	6,811	1	8	13	299	2	108
18. Erfurt	519	627	14	27	29,756	28,758	4	21	2	1,139	6	36	9	1,549	2	18	3	428	3	122
19. Munster	580	417	29	144	32,899	31,727	12	16	14	433	2	2	4	52	1	8	2	45	1	28
20. Minden	572	589	76	53	41,608	39,898	6	12	..	877	7	10	12	632	2	8	..	76	2	93
21. Arnsberg	811	876	87	55	50,370	47,165	16	23	1	548	9	19	3	243	6	13	5	462	1	47
22. Coln	581	504	222	93	41,561	37,966	2	8	4	52	7	9	31	628	3	16	4	404	1	101
23. Dusseldorf...	798	904	334	36	71,627	67,698	12	24	2	405	25	58	48	854	12	53	17	1,810	2	177
24. Coblentz.....	1,058	985	79	68	45,419	43,508	5	11	11	202	11	13	46	527	13	26	10	489	1	87
25. Trier	881	880	71	96	39,684	39,[illegible]5	2	..	4	51	4	6	5	850	4	11	11	284	..	..
26. Aachen......	583	551	101	60	34,229	31,702	1	1	..	11	6	8	19	568	4	18	7	561	..	..
Total....	24,080	25,914	2,749	1,856	1,285,448	1,197,885	342	898	197	43,516	360	1,094	640	48,302	100	505	197	15,624	41	2,186

In 1848, the population of Prussia was about 16,000,000. According to the foregoing table, there were 24,030 elementary schools, with 2,433,333 children between the ages of 6 and 14, in average daily attendance; 1,202 middle or burgher schools with 91,888 pupils, and 100 higher, or town schools, with 15,624 pupils, making an aggregate of 25,332 public primary schools, and 2,540,775 pupils. To these schools should be added 117 gymnasia for classical education, with 29,474 pupils, and 1,664 professors; 7 universities with 4,000 students and 471 professors, and libraries with over 1,000,000 volumes; 382 institutions, in the nature of infant schools, with 25,000 children, and a large number of schools for special instruction, as for the blind, deaf mutes, commerce, trades, arts, &c.; and Prussia can present an array of institutions, teachers, professors, and educational facilities, for all classes of her population, not surpassed by any other country.

If to the number of children at school, public or private, we add those who are receiving instruction at home, or who have left school after obtaining the certificate of school attendance up to the age of twelve years, and of their being able to read, write, and cipher, and those who are detained from school temporarily by sickness, we can easily acquiesce in the claim of the director of the Statistical Bureau, by whom the annual school returns are collected, and published every three years, that every child under fourteen years of age has already attended school public or private, or has acquired that degree of instruction which makes self-education in almost any direction practicable. From an investigation made by the government in 1845, there were, in the whole of Prussia, only two young men in every one hundred between the ages of twenty and twenty-two, who could not read, write, and cipher, and had not a knowledge of Scripture history.

According to the foregoing table, there were 34,030 primary school teachers employed in, viz.:

Elementary schools.	Head teachers,	25,914
" "	Assistants,	2,749
" "	Schoolmistresses,	1,856
Middle or Burgher schools for boys.	Head teachers,	898
" " " "	Assistants,	197
" " " girls.	Head teachers,	1,094
" " " "	Schoolmistresses,	640
Higher Burgher.	Head teachers,	505
" "	Assistants,	197
	Total,	34,030

These thirty-four thousand teachers had all been thoroughly educated in the studies they were called on to teach, and the best methods of teaching the same in seminaries established for this purpose, of which there were forty-six, supported by the government, in 1848. By means of educational periodicals, and frequent meetings for professional improvement, these teachers are bound together into a great association, stimulating each other to higher attainments, and marching forward a noble army for the improvement, and not the destruction of the people.

The following statistics will show how steadily the primary schools have advanced in numbers, attendance, and teachers, since 1819:

1. In 1819, the number of schools in Prussia was	20,085
In 1825, " " " "	21,625
In 1831, " " " "	22,612
In 1843, " " " "	23,646
In 1846, " " " "	25,332
2. In 1819, the number of teachers in Prussia was	21,895
In 1825, " " " "	22,965
In 1831, " " " "	27,749
In 1843, " " " "	29,631
In 1846, " " " "	32,316
3. In 1825, the number of children between seven and fourteen years of age, was	1,923,200
And the number of these who were attending the schools, was	1,664,218
In 1831, the number of children between seven and fourteen years of age, was	2,043,030
And the number of these who were attending the schools, was	2,021,421
In 1843, the number of children between seven and fourteen years of age, was	2,992,124
And the number of these who were attending the schools, was	2,328,146
In 1846, the number of children in public schools,	2,540,775

These great results have been obtained by the united efforts of the government and the people; but even these statistics can not show the improvement which has been made in school-houses, school instruction, and the whole internal economy of the school-room.

SUBJECTS AND METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

IN

THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF PRUSSIA.

BEFORE presenting an outline of the course of instruction pursued in the common schools of Prussia, gathered from the observations of distinguished educators in their visits to a large number of schools of different grades, as well as from published accounts of the organization and studies of particular schools, we will introduce a brief view* of the general objects and different degrees of primary education, and of the manner in which the schools are established and conducted.

Two degrees of primary instruction are distinguished by the law; the *elementary schools* and the *burgher schools*. The elementary schools propose the development of the human faculties, through an instruction in those common branches of knowledge which are indispensable to every person, both of town and country. The burgher schools (*Beurgerschulen Stadtschulen*†) carry on the child until he is capable of manifesting his inclination for a classical education, or for this or that particular profession. The gymnasia continue this education until the youth is prepared, either to commence his practical studies in common life, or his higher and special scientific studies in the university.

These different gradations coincide in forming, so to speak, a great establishment of national education, one in system, and of which the parts, though each accomplishing a special end, are all mutually correlative. The primary education of which we speak, though divided into two degrees, has its peculiar unity and general laws; it admits of accommodation, however, to the sex, language, religion, and future destination of the pupils. 1. Separate establishments for girls should be formed, wherever possible, corresponding to the elementary and larger schools for boys. 2. In those provinces of the monarchy (as the Polish) where a foreign language is spoken, besides lessons in the native idiom, the children shall receive complete instruction in German, which is also to be employed as the ordinary language of the school. 3. Difference of religion in Christian schools necessarily determines differences in religious instruction. This instruction shall always be accommodated to the spirit and doctrines of the persuasion to which the school belongs. But, as in every school of a christian state, the dominant spirit (common to all creeds) should be piety, and a profound reverence of the Deity, every Christian school may receive the children of every sect. The masters and superintendents ought to avoid, with scrupulous care, every shadow of religious constraint or annoyance. No schools should be abused to any purposes of proselytism; and the children of a worship different from that of the school, shall not be obliged, contrary to the wish of their parents or their own, to attend its religious instruction and exercises. Special masters of their own persuasion shall have the care of their religious education; and should it be impossible to have as many masters as confessions, the parents should endeavor, with so much the greater solicitude, to discharge this duty themselves, if disinclined to allow their children to attend the religious lessons of the school. The primitive destination of every school, says the law, is so to train youth that, with a knowledge of the relations of man to God, it may foster in them the desire of ruling their life by the spirit and principles of Christianity. The school shall, therefore, betimes second and complete the first domestic training of the child to piety. Prayer and edifying reflections shall commence and terminate the day; and the master must beware that this moral exercise do never degenerate into a matter of routine. Obedience to the laws, loyalty, and patriotism, to be inculcated. No humiliating or indecent castigation allowed; and corporal punishment, in general, to be applied only in cases of necessity. Scholars found wholly incorrigible, in order to obviate bad example, to be at length dismissed. The pupils, as they advance in age, to be employed in the maintenance of good order in the school, and thus betimes habituated to regard themselves as active and useful members of society.

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* Mainly in the language of the law and ordinance, as translated and condensed by Sir William Hamilton, in an article in the Edinburgh Review.

† Called likewise *Mittelschulen*, middle schools, and *Realschulen*, real schools; the last, because they are less occupied with the study of language (*Verbalia*) than with the knowledge of things, (*Realia*.)

The primary education has for its scope the development of the different faculties, intellectual and moral, mental and bodily. Every *complete elementary school* necessarily embraces the nine following branches: 1. Religion—morality established on the positive truths of Christianity; 2. The German tongue, and in the Polish provinces, the vernacular language; 3. The elements of geometry and general principles of drawing; 4. Calculation and applied arithmetic; 5. The elements of physics, of general history, and of the history of Prussia; 6. Singing; 7. Writing; 8. Gymnastic exercises; 9. The more simple manual labors, and some instruction in the relative country occupations.

Every *burgher school* must teach the ten following branches: 1. Religion and morals. 2. The German language, and the vernacular idiom of the province, reading, composition, exercises of style, exercises of talent, and the study of the national classics In the countries of the German tongue, the modern foreign languages are the objects of an accessory study. 3. Latin to a certain extent. (This, we believe, is not universally enforced.) 4. The elements of mathematics, and in particular a thorough knowledge of practical arithmetic. 5. Physics, and natural history to explain the more important phenomena of nature. 6. Geography, and general history combined; Prussia, its history, laws, and constitution, form the object of a particular study. 7. The principles of design; to be taught with the instruction given in physics, natural history, and geometry. 8. The penmanship should be watched;

and the hand exercised to write with neatness and ease. 9. Singing, in order to develop the voice, to afford a knowledge of the art, and to enable the scholars to assist in the solemnities of the church. 10. Gymnastic exercises accommodated to the age and strength of the scholar. Such is the minimum of education to be afforded by a burgher school. If its means enable it to attempt a higher instruction, so as to prepare the scholar, destined to a learned profession, for an immediate entrance into the gymnasia, the school then takes the name of. *Higher Town School.*

Every pupil, on leaving school, should receive from his masters and the committee of superintendence, a certificate of his capacity, and of his moral and religious dispositions. These certificates to be always produced on approaching the communion, and on entering into apprenticeship or service. They are given only at the period of departure; and in the burgher schools, as in the gymnasia, they form the occasion of a great solemnity.

Every half year pupils are admitted; promoted from class to class; and absolved at the conclusion of their studies.

Books of study to be carefully chosen by the committees, with concurrence of the superior authorities, the ecclesiastical being specially consulted in regard to those of a religious nature. For the Catholic schools, the bishops, in concert with the provincial consistories, to select the devotional books; and, in case of any difference of opinion, the Minister of Public Instruction shall decide.

Schoolmasters are to adopt the methods best accommodated to the natural development of the human mind; methods which keep the intellectual powers in constant, general, and spontaneous exercise, and are not limited to the infusion of a mechanical knowledge. The committees are to watch over the methods of the master, and to aid him by their council; never to tolerate a vicious method, and to report to the higher authorities should their admonition be neglected. Parents and guardians have a right to scrutinize the system of education by which their children are taught; and to address their complaints to the higher authorities, who are bound to have them carefully investigated. On the other hand, they are bound to cooperate with their private influence in aid of the public discipline; nor is it permitted them to withdraw a scholar from any branch of education taught in the school as necessary.

As a national establishment, every school should court the greatest publicity. In those for boys, besides the special half yearly examinations, for the promotion from one class to another, there shall annually take place public examinations, in order to exhibit the spirit of the instruction, and the proficiency of the scholars. On this solemnity, the director, or one of the masters, in an official programme, is to render an account of the condition and progress of the school. In fine, from time to time, there shall be published a general report of the state of education in each province. In schools for females, the examinations take place in presence of the parents and masters, without any general invitation.

But if the public instructors are bound to a faithful performance of their duties, they have a right, in return, to the gratitude and respect due to the zealous laborer in the sacred work of education. The school is entitled to claim universal countenance and aid, even from those who do not confide to it their children. All public authorities, each in its sphere, are enjoined to promote the public schools and to lend support to the masters in the exercise of their office, as to any other functionaries of the state. In all the communes of the monarchy, the clergy of all Christians persuasions, whether in the church, in their school visitation, or in their sermons on the opening of the classes, shall omit no opportunity of recalling to the schools their high mission, and to the people their duties to these establishments. The civil authorities, the clergy, and the masters, shall every where cooperate in tightening the bonds of respect and attachment between the people and the school; so that the nation may be more habituated to consider education as a primary condition of civil existence, and daily take a deeper interest in its advancement.

The following extracts from Kay's "*Social Condition and Education of the People*," will show how these provisions of the law, and governmental instructions are carried into practice.

The three great results, which the Prussian government has labored to ensure by this system of education are—

1. To interest the different parishes and towns in the progress of the education of the people, by committing the management of the parochial schools to them, under certain very simple restrictions.
2. To assist the parochial school committees in each county with the advice of the most able inhabitants of the county; and—
3. To gain the cordial cooperation of the ministers of religion.

These results the government has gained, to the entire and perfect satisfaction of all parties. The provincial and county councils act as advisers of the parochial committees. These latter are the actual directors of parochial education; and the clergy not only occupy places in these parochial committees, but are also the *ex-officio* inspectors of all the schools.

The system is liberally devised; and I am persuaded that it is solely owing to its impartial, popular, and religious character, that it has enlisted so strongly on its side the feelings of the Prussian people.

I know there are many in our land who say, "But why have any system at all? Is it not better to leave the education of the people to the exertions of public charity and private benevolence?" Let the contrast between the state of the education and social condition of the poor in England and Germany be the answer. In England it is well known *that not one half of the country is properly supplied with good schools, and that many of those, which do exist, are under the direction of very inefficient and sometimes of actually immoral teachers.* In Germany and Switzerland, *every* parish is supplied with its school buildings, and *each* school is directed by a teacher of high principles, and superior education and intelligence. Such a splendid social institution has not existed without effecting magnificent results, and the Germans and Swiss may now proudly point to the character and condition of their peasantry.

So great have been the results of this system, that it is now a well known fact, that, except in cases of sickness, every child between the ages of six and ten in the whole of Prussia, is receiving instruction from highly educated teachers, under the surveillance of the parochial ministers. And, if I except the manufacturing districts, I may go still farther, and say, that every child in Prussia, between the ages of six and fourteen, is receiving daily instruction in its parochial school. But even this assertion does not give any adequate idea of the vastness of the educational machinery, which is at work; for the Prussian government is encouraging all the towns throughout the country to establish infant schools for the children of parents who are forced, from the peculiar nature of their labor, to absent themselves from home during the greater part of the day, and who would be otherwise obliged to leave their infants without proper superintendence; and, as all the children in the manufacturing districts, who are engaged in the weaving-rooms, are also obliged to attend evening classes to the age of fourteen years, I may say, with great truth, that *nearly all the Prussian children between the ages of four and fourteen are under the influence of a religious education.* And let it not be supposed that an arbitrary government has forced this result from an unwilling people. On the contrary, as I have said before, the peasants themselves have always been at least as anxious to obtain this education for their children, as the government has been desirous of granting it.

A proof of the satisfaction, with which the Prussian people regard the educational regulations, is the undeniable fact, that all the materials and machinery for instruction are being so constantly and so rapidly improved over the whole country, and by the people themselves. Wherever I traveled, I was astonished to see the great improvement in all these several matters that was going on. Every where I found new and handsome school-houses springing up, old ones being repaired, a most liberal supply of teachers and of apparatus for the schools provided by the municipal authorities, the greatest cleanliness, lofty and spacious school-rooms, and excellent houses for the teachers; all showing, that the importance of the work is fully appreciated *by the people*, and that there is every desire on their part to aid the government in carrying out this vast undertaking.

The children generally remain in school, until the completion of their fourteenth year; and a law has been issued, for one or two of the provinces, appointing this as the time, after which the parents may remove their children. But if the parents are very poor, and their children have learnt the doctrines of their religion, as well as to read, write, and cipher, their religious minister can, in conjunction with the teacher, permit them to discontinue their attendance at the completion of their twelfth year.

"No child, without the permission both of the civil magistrate of the town or village of which its parents are inhabitants, and also of their religious minister, can be kept from school beyond the completion of its fifth year, or afterward discontinue its attendance on the school classes for any length of time."

If a parent neither provides at home for the education of his children, nor sends them to the school, the teacher is bound to inform the religious minister of the parent; the minister then remonstrates with him; and if he still neglects to send his children, the minister is bound by law to report him to the village committee, which has power to punish him by a fine, of from one halfpenny to sixpence a day, for neglecting the first and greatest duty of every parent. If the village committee can not induce him to educate his children, he is reported to the union magistrates, who are empowered to punish him with imprisonment. But it is hardly ever necessary to resort to such harsh measures, for the parents are even more anxious to send their children to these admirably conducted schools, than the civil magistrate to obtain their attendance. In order, however, to ensure such a regular attendance, and as an assistance to the parents themselves, each teacher is furnished by the local magistrate, every year, with a list of all the children of his district, who have attained the age, at which they ought to attend his classes. This list is called over every morning and every afternoon, and all absentees are marked down, so that the school committees, magistrates, and inspectors may instantly discover if the attendance of any child has been irregular. If a child requires leave of absence for more than a week, the parent must apply to the civil magistrate for it; but the clergyman can grant it, if it be only for six or seven days, and the teacher alone can allow it, if for only one or two days.

At the German revolutions of 1848, one of the great popular cries was for *gratuitous* education. The governments of Germany were obliged to yield to this cry, and to make it the law of nearly the whole of Germany, that all parents should be able to get their children educated at the primary schools without having to pay any thing for this education.

There are now, therefore, no school fees in the greatest part of Germany. Education is perfectly gratuitous. The poorest man can send his child free of all expense to the best of the public schools of his district. And, besides this, the authorities of the parish or town, in which a parent lives, who is too poor to clothe his children decently enough for school attendance, are obliged to clothe them for him, and to provide them with books, pencils, pens, and every thing necessary for school attendance, so that a poor man, instead of being obliged to pay something out of his small earnings for the education of his children, is, on the contrary, actually paid for sending them to school. This latter is an old regulation, and is one which has aided very greatly to make the educational regulations very popular among the poor of Germany.

I made very careful inquiries about the education of children in the principal manufacturing district of Prussia. I remained several days in Elberfeld, their largest manufacturing town, on purpose to visit the factory schools. I put myself there, as elsewhere, in direct communication with the teachers, from whom I obtained a great deal of information; and I also had several interviews on the subject with the educational councillors at Berlin, who put into my hand the latest regulations on this subject issued by the government.

The laws relating to the factory children date only from 1839. They are as follows:—

"No child may be employed in any manufactory, or in any mining or building operations, before it has attained the age of *nine* years.

"No child, which has not received three years' regular instruction in a school, and has not obtained the certificate of a school committee, that it can read its mother tongue fluently, and also write it tolerably well, may be employed in any of the above-mentioned ways, before it has completed its sixteenth year.

"An exception to this latter rule is only allowed in those cases, where the manufacturers provide for the education of the factory children, by erecting and maintaining factory schools."

If a manufacturer will establish a school in connection with his manufactory, and engage a properly educated teacher, he is then allowed to employ any children of nine years of age, whether they have obtained a certificate or not, on condition, however, that these children attend the school four evenings in every week, as well as two hours every Sunday morning, until they have obtained a certificate of proficiency in their studies.

The "schulrath," or educational minister in the county court, decides whether the factory school is so satisfactorily managed, as to entitle the manufacturer to this privilege. This minister also regulates the hours which must be devoted weekly to the instruction of the factory children.

"Young people, under sixteen years of age, may not be employed in manufacturing establishments more than ten hours a day."

The civil magistrates are, however, empowered, in some cases, to allow young people to work eleven hours a day, when an accident has happened, which obliges the manufacturer to make up for lost time, in order to accomplish a certain quantity of work before a given day. But these licenses can not be granted for more, at the most, than four weeks at a time.

After the hours of labor have been regulated by the "schulrath" and the manufacturer, the latter is obliged by law to take care that the factory children have, both in the mornings and in the afternoons, a quarter of an hour's exercise in the open air, and that at noon, they always have a good hour's relaxation from labor.

"*No young person, under sixteen years of age, may, in any case, or in any emergency, work more than eleven hours a day.*" The children of Christian parents, who have not been confirmed, may not work in the mills during the hours set apart by the religious minister, for the religious instruction, which he wishes to give them preparatory to their confirmation.

The manufacturers, who employ children in the mills, are obliged to lay before the magistrate a list, containing the names of all the children they employ, their respective ages, their places of abode, and the names of their parents. If any inspector or teacher reports to the civil magistrate, that any child under the legal age is being employed in the mills instead of being sent to school, or if the police report the infringement of any other of the above-mentioned regulations, the magistrate is empowered and obliged to punish the manufacturer by fines, which are increased in amount on every repetition of the offense.

I examined the actual state of things in Elberfeld, one of the most important of the manufacturing districts of Prussia, and I found these regulations most satisfactorily put in force. No children were allowed to work in the mills, before they had attained the age of nine years, and after this time, they were required to attend classes four evenings every week, conducted by the teachers of the day-schools; or, if their work was of such a nature as to prevent such attendance, then they were obliged to attend classes every Sunday morning for two hours; and this attendance was required to be continued, until the children could obtain a certificate from their teacher and religious minister, that they could read and write well, that they were well versed in Scripture history, and that they knew arithmetic sufficiently well to perform all the ordinary calculations, which would be required of them. As a check upon the parents and manufacturers, no child was allowed to labor in the mills, without having obtained a certificate, signed by its religious minister and its teacher, that it was attending one of these classes regularly. If the attendance was irregular, this certificate was immediately withdrawn, and the child was no longer allowed to continue working in the mills. But, from all I saw of these schools, and from what the teachers told me, I should say, they had no difficulty in enforcing attendance; and, so far from it being evident, that the parents were anxious to send their children into the mills, as soon as possible, I was astonished to find even the *daily* schools filled to overflowing, and that with children, many of whom were thirteen, fourteen, and fifteen years of age.

It is very easy for the traveler, who is merely passing through the *manufacturing* towns of the Rhine Provinces, to prove to himself, how anxious both the people and the government are to carry all these regulations into effect. Let him only take the trouble of wandering into the streets of such a town, at a quarter to eight in the morning, or at a quarter to one in the afternoon, and he will find them alive with children of remarkably courteous and gentle appearance, all *very* neatly and cleanly dressed, each carrying a little bag containing a slate and school books, and all hurrying along to school. Let him visit the same streets at any time during the school hours, and he will find an absence of young children, which, accustomed as he is to the alleys of our towns, swarming with poor little creatures growing up in filth, and coarseness, and immorality, will be even more astonishing and delightful.

Before Prussia began in good earnest to promote the education of the people, it was thought there, as it is in England at the present day, that private charity and voluntary exertions would suffice, to supply the country with all the materials of education. In the early part of the eighteenth century the government enunciated, in formal edicts, that it was the first duty of a parish to educate its young. For nearly one hundred years, it trusted to the voluntary principle, and left the work in the hands of generous individuals; the result was what might have been expected, and what may be observed in England: the supply of the materials of education did not keep pace with the growth of the population. Prussia was little or no better provided with schools in 1815, than it had been in 1715; as to the teachers, they were poor, neglected, ignorant persons. Educated persons would not become teachers of the poor; and the poor were neither able nor willing to pay for the education of teachers for their children. A sufficient number of benevolent individuals could not be found to bear the whole expense of educating the nation; and even in those parishes, in which the benevolent part of the richer classes had managed to collect funds, sufficient for carrying on such a work for a year or two, it was found, that they were unable or unwilling, for any length of time, to bear alone such a great and ever-increasing burden.

After a long trial of this unfair voluntary system, which taxed charitable individuals in order to make up for the default of the selfish or careless, it was found, in 1815, as in England at the present day, that great numbers of parishes had no schools at all; that of the schools which were built, scarcely any were properly supplied with the necessary books and apparatus; that there were no good teachers in the country, and no means of educating any; and that the science of pedagogy had been totally neglected, and was universally misunderstood.

If then, the people were to be educated,—and the French revolution of 1789 had taught the Prussian government the necessity of enlightening the poor and of improving their social condition, it became but too evident, that the government must act as well as preach. In a word, the experience of one hundred years taught the Prussians, that it was necessary to *compel* the ignorant, slothful, and selfish members of the political body to assist the benevolent and patriotic, or that sufficient funds would never be found for educating the whole of the laboring classes. The following regulations, therefore, were put into and are still in force throughout Prussia.

The inhabitants of each parish are obliged, either alone, or in company with one or more neighboring parishes, to provide sufficient school-room, a sufficient number of teachers, and all the necessary school apparatus for the instruction of all their children, who are between the ages of six and fourteen. I shall show by what parochial organization this is effected.

I. *Where all the inhabitants of a village are members of the same religious denomination.*

In these cases, whenever more school-room, or a greater number of teachers, or more apparatus, or any repairs of the existing school-buildings is required, the village magistrate, having been informed of these deficiencies by the district school-inspector, immediately summons a committee of the villagers, called the "Schulvorstand."

This Schulvorstand consists—

1. Of the religious minister of the parish. He is the president of the committee or Schulvorstand. In some parts of Prussia, however, there are still some few remnants of the old aristocracy, who possess great estates; and where the village is situated on one of these estates, there the landlord is the president of the school committee. This, however, is so rare an exception, that it is not necessary further to notice it.

2. Of the village magistrate, who is selected by the county magistrates, from the most intelligent men in the parish.

3. Of from two to four of the heads of families in the parish. These members of the committee are elected by the parishioners, and their election is confirmed or annulled by the union magistrates. If the union magistrate annuls the election, because of the unfitness of the persons chosen, the parish can proceed to a second election; but, if they again select men, who are not fit to be entrusted with the duties of the school committee, the election is again annulled, and the union magistrate himself selects two or four of the parishioners, to act as members of the committee. When the village is situate on the estate of a great landed proprietor, he also can annul the choice of the parishioners; but these cases, as I have before said, are very rare, and are confined almost entirely to the eastern provinces of Prussia, where the Polish nobles still retain some of their former possessions; for in the other provinces of Prussia, the land is now almost as much subdivided as in France, and is generally the property of the peasants.

The members of these committees are chosen for six years, at the end of which time a new election takes place.

If several parishes join in supporting *one* school, each of them must be represented in the school committee, by at least one head of a family. The county court, however, has the power of preventing this union of parishes, for the support of one joint school,—

1. When the number of children is so great, as to make it difficult to instruct them all in two classes.

2. When the parishes are separated too far apart, or when the roads between them are bad, dangerous, or at times impassable.

In such cases there must be separate schools; or else the great law of the land, that "*all the children must be educated*," would often be infringed.

II. *Where the inhabitants of a village are members of different religious denominations.*

Sometimes it happens, that a parish contains persons of different religious opinions; and then arises the question, which has been a stumbling-block to the progress of primary education in England, "how shall the rival claims of these parties be satisfied, so that the great law of Germany, that '*all the children must be educated*,' may be carried into effect?"

In these cases, the governments of Germany leave the parishes at perfect liberty to select their own course of proceeding, and to establish separate or mixed schools, according as they judge best for themselves. The only thing the government requires is, that schools of one kind or another shall be established.

If the inhabitants of such a parish in Prussia determine on having separate schools, then separate school committees are elected by the different sects. The committee of each sect consist of, the village magistrate, the minister, and two or three heads of families, of the religious party for which the committee is constituted.

If the inhabitants, however, decide on having one mixed school for all the religious parties, the committee consists of, the village magistrate, the religious ministers of the different parties, and several of the parishioners, elected from among the members of the different sects, for which the school is intended.

In these cases, the teacher is chosen from the most numerous religious party; or, if the school is large enough to require two teachers, the head one is elected from the members of the most numerous party, and the second from those of the next largest party. If there is only one teacher, children of those parents who do not belong to the same religious sect as the teacher, are always allowed to absent themselves during the hour in which the teacher gives the religious lessons, on condition that the children receive religious instruction from their own religious ministers.

One of the educational councillors at Berlin informed me, that the government did not *encourage* the establishment of mixed schools, as they think, that in such cases, the religious education of both parties, or at least of one of them, often suffers; but, he continued, "of course we think a mixed school infinitely better than none at all; and, when a district is too poor to support separate schools, we gladly see mixed ones established." The gentleman who said this was a Roman Catholic. In the towns, there are not often mixed schools containing Romanists and Protestants, as there generally are sufficient numbers of each of these sects in every town, to enable the citizens to establish separate schools. The children of Jews, however, are often to be found, even in the towns, in the schools of the other sects; but, owing to the entire and uncontrolled liberty of decision that the people themselves possess on this point, there seems to be little difficulty in arranging matters, and no jealousy whatever exists between the different parties. If a mixed school is established in any parish, and the teacher is chosen from the most numerous sect, and if the minor party becomes discontented or suspicious of the education given in the school, it is always at liberty to establish another school for itself; and it is this liberty of action, which preserves the parishes, where the mixed schools exist, from all intestine troubles and religious quarrels, which are ever the most ungodly of disputes. In leaving the settlement of this matter to the parishes, the government appears to have acted most wisely; for, in these religious questions, any interference from without is sure to create alarm, suspicion, and jealousy, and cause the different parties to fly asunder, instead of coalescing. All that the government does, is to say, "You must provide sufficient school-room, and a sufficient number of good teachers, but decide yourselves how you will do this." The consequence is, that the people say, "We can try a mixed school first; and, if we see reason to fear its effects, we will then amicably decide on erecting another separate one." So that the great difficulty arising from religious difference has been easily overcome.

The duties of the school committees, when once formed, are:—

1st. To take care that the parish is supplied with sufficient school-room for all the children, who are between the ages of five and fourteen.

2d. To supply the school-room with all the books, writing materials, slates, blackboards, maps, and apparatus necessary for instruction.

3d. To provide the teachers with comfortable houses for themselves and families.

4th. To keep all the school-buildings, and the houses of the teachers, in good repair, often whitewashed, and well warmed.

5th. To take care that the salary of the teachers is paid to them regularly.

6th. To assist those parents who are too poor to provide their children with clothes sufficiently decent for their school attendance.

7th. To assist, protect, and encourage the teachers.

8th. To be present at all the public examinations of the school, at the induction of the teachers, which is a public ceremony performed in church before all the parishioners, and at all the school fête days.

If the school is not endowed, the committee is empowered to impose a tax on the householders for its support, and for the payment of the schoolmaster; and it is held responsible by the higher authorities for his regular payment, according to the agreement, which was made with him on his introduction. The school committee, however, can not discharge the teacher, it can only report him to the higher authorities; for in Prussia none of the *local* authorities, who are in *immediate* contact with the teacher, and who might, consequently, imbibe personal prejudices against him, are allowed to exercise the power of dismissing him. This is reserved for those, who are never brought into personal connection with him, and who are not, therefore, so likely to imbibe such prejudices. Neither can the committee interfere with the interior discipline of the school; it can only inspect the condition of the school, and report to the county authorities. When the committee has once elected the teacher, he is entirely free to follow his own plans of instruction, unfettered by the interference of local authorities, as he is presumed to understand his own business, better than any of those about him. If the school-committee neglects its duties, or refuses to furnish the teacher with the necessary apparatus, or to keep the school-house in proper repair, or to pay the teacher regularly, he has always the power of appealing to the inspectors, or to the county courts, who instantly compel the local authorities to perform their appointed duties.

When a new school is required, the school committee selects the site and plan of the buildings, and sends them for confirmation to the county magistrate. If this magistrate sees any objection to the plans, he returns them to the committee, with his suggestions; the plans are then reconsidered by the committee, and returned with the necessary emendations to the magistrate, who then gives his sanction to them. Before this sanction has been obtained, the plans can not be finally adopted by the committee.

It is already very evident, by what I have said, how very much liberty of action is left to the people themselves. True it is, that in the election of members of the committees, as well as in the choice of plans and sites for school-houses, and in the determination of the amount of the school-rate, the county magistrates have a negative; but this is only a necessary precaution against the possibility of a really vicious selection of members, or of unhealthy or otherwise unsuitable sites for the school-houses, or of a niggardly and insufficient provision for the support of the school. Such a limited interference is always necessary, where the interests of the acting parties might otherwise tempt them to disregard the spirit of the law, and to sacrifice some great public good to the selfishness or ignorance of private individuals.

Every landed proprietor is obliged by law, to provide for the education of the children of all laborers living on his estates, who are too poor themselves to do so. Every such proprietor is also obliged by law, to keep the schools situated upon his estates in perfect repair, and in a perfect state of cleanliness; to conform to all the regulations, of which I shall speak hereafter, and which relate to the election and support of the teachers; and to furnish all the wood necessary for the repairs and warming of the school-buildings, and all the apparatus, books, &c., necessary for instruction.

This is what ought to be done in England. If it is right, that the law should grant to the proprietors such full powers over their property even after death, and should enable them to tie up their land in their own family for so long a time, and thus prevent the land dividing and getting into the hands of the poor, as it does abroad, it is but just, that the landlords should be compelled by law to do, at least, as much for their tenants in this country, as they are compelled to do in countries where the poor are much more favored than they are here, and where the interests of landlords are much less protected by law, than they are with us.

It sometimes happens, that a parish is so poor, as not to be able to build the new school-house, of which it stands in need. In these cases, in order that the great law of the land "*that every child must be educated*" should be carried into execution, it is necessary that the poor parish should receive assistance from without. This is provided for by a law, which requires that each county court shall assist, within its district, every parish, which is not able to provide alone for the expenses of the education of its children. If a county court should, from the number of calls upon its treasury, find itself unable to supply enough to assist all the parishes of the county which need assistance, the government at Berlin grants assistance to the county court; for, whatever else is neglected for want of funds, great care is taken that all necessary means for the education of the people shall be every where provided.

The school organization of the Prussian towns differs somewhat from that of the Prussian villages. I have already mentioned, that the superior *village* magistrates are appointed by the state, and that in each village there is one of these civil magistrates, who is a member of the village school committee, and is held responsible, if sufficient means are not provided for the education of the people of his district. But, in the towns, the magistrates are elected by the citizens; and, strange as it may seem, the municipal corporations have long been, on the whole, liberally constituted. The privilege of citizenship in any town is acquired, by good character and honest repute. The magistrates, who have been themselves elected by the citizens, can admit such inhabitants of the town, as they think worthy of the position, to the rank of citizens. But all citizens, who possess any ground of the value, in small towns, of 50*l.*, or in large towns, of about 250*l.* in Prussian money, and all citizens who, without possessing any ground, have incomes of at least 35*l.* per annum, in Prussian money, are by law entitled to a vote in the election of the town magistrates. The citizens, who are entitled to a vote, elect, every three years, a number of representatives, or, as they are called, town councillors. No person can be elected to the office of town councillor, unless he possess land of the value, in small towns, of at least 150*l.*, and in large towns of at least 200*l.*, or whose income does not amount to at least 35*l.* per annum. The number of these councillors depends on the size of the towns; no town can elect fewer than nine, or more than sixty. The manner in which they are elected, differs in different towns, but I believe the ordinary custom is, for each division of a town to elect one or more to represent it in the general council. These councillors, when elected, proceed to the election of a certain number of magistrates, whose offices last from six to twelve years, and these magistrates appoint from among themselves a mayor, who is chosen also for twelve years. The county court, under which the town finds itself ranged, has the power of annulling the election of the mayor, and of any of the magistrates, whom it may judge unfit for their office; and, in such a case, the magistrates or the town councillors, as the case may be, are obliged to proceed to another election. Such is a bare outline of the Prussian municipal system. With the various civic and political duties of the different authorities, I have no concern here, further than they relate to the education of the people.

In each town a committee is chosen, which is called the "*schuldeputation*," or, as I shall translate it, the school committee. It consists of from one to three, but of never more than three, of the town magistrates, of an equal number of deputies from the town councillors, an equal number of citizens, having the reputation of being interested and skilled in school matters, (these are commonly selected from among the religious ministers,) and also of the several representatives of those privately endowed schools in the town, which are not supported by the town, but yet fall under the surveillance and direction of its municipal authorities. The number of these representatives varies, according to the size of the town. With the exception of the representatives of the *private* schools, the members of this committee are chosen by the magistrates, who are themselves, as I have before said, elected by the citizens; but the representatives of the private schools, which are not supported by the town funds, are nominated by the county courts. To these members, thus elected, is joined one member from each of the committees, which are elected from the magistrates and town councillors for the different municipal affairs, if the former election should not have admitted any such members into the school committee. The first ecclesiastical authority of the town is also, *ex-officio*, a member of the committee; and if the town contains both Romanists and Protestants, the committee must be composed of equal proportions of members of the different parties. The county courts have the power of annulling the election of any member, if they see reason to deem him unfit for the exercise of the duties of his office, and in such a case, the town authorities are obliged to proceed to make a new election.

The duties of the town school committees are to provide sufficient school-room for all the children in the town; to elect a sufficient number of teachers; to pay them their salaries regularly; to provide all needful apparatus for the schools; to keep the class-rooms and the teachers' houses in good repair, well whitewashed, and well warmed; to take care that all the children of the town attend school regularly; to inspect the schools at stated intervals; *to provide each school with a play-ground;* and to take care that the teachers exercise the children there every morning and afternoon. The funds required for the maintenance of the town schools, are provided from the treasury of the corporation.

The town councillors are responsible to the county magistrate and to the central government for the due performance of these several duties. If they neglect any of them, the teachers and inspectors complain to the higher authorities, who oblige them to conform immediately to the general law of the land.

Besides these municipal authorities, for the superintendence of the education of the whole town, it often happens, that each school in the town has its peculiar schulvorstand, corresponding to the village committees, which I have already described. These committees, where they do exist in the towns, elect their own teachers, and collect, in their several districts, the necessary school funds from the heads of families dwelling there; but if any one of the district school committees is not able to provide for the expenditure required to supply the wants of its district, the town school committee is obliged to come forward and assist it, from the general town funds. The latter committee is the general superintendent and assistant, but the former little district societies, where they exist, are the actual laborers. Difference of religion creates no greater difficulty in the towns than in the country parishes, since the Romanists, Protestants, and Jews can, if they prefer, manage their own schools, separately, by means of the little school societies, and are never forced into any sort of connection, unless, where it is agreeable to themselves.

The Prussian government seems to have considered the education of the children of the towns, of even higher importance, than that of the children of the villages; and to have required the formation of these superior committees in the towns, as a sort of additional security, that all the districts of a town should be amply provided with every thing necessary for the careful education of their children.

These committees assemble every fortnight, and oftener when necessary, at the town halls; they have the power of inviting any number of the clergy and teachers of the towns to assist at their conferences, and to aid them with their experience and counsels.

In many parts of Prussia these central town committees are superseding the smaller district school societies, so that the funds of all the town schools, and the choice and induction of all the teachers rest entirely with the one central town school committee; and in the case of towns containing different religious sects, as far as I could gather from what I heard in Berlin—for on this point I could find no express regulation—the Protestant members of the town committee appoint the teachers of the Protestant schools, and the Romanist members the teachers of the Romanist schools.

But in every town every religious party is at liberty, if it pleases, to separate itself from the central town committee, and to form its own separate school committee, for the management of its own educational affairs. And where ever the union of the different religious parties occasions any strife and disputes, the small district committees are sure to be formed. Where these smaller committees do exist, they elect the teachers for the schools under their management.

Great advantages are, however, insured, when the management of all the schools in any town can be put under the direction of one committee, instead of each being placed under the direction of its separate committee; or when all the Romanist schools can be put under the direction of one committee, and all the Protestant schools under the direction of another. For, in these cases, instead of creating a great number of *small* schools in different parts of the town, each containing only one or two classes, in which children of very different ages and very different degrees of proficiency must be necessarily mingled and taught together, to the manifest retarding of the progress of the more forward as well as of the more backward, several schools are generally combined, so as to form one large one, containing five boys' classes and five girls' classes. In these classes, the teachers are able to classify the children in such a manner, that one teacher may take the youngest and most deficient, another the more advanced, and so on. In this manner, as each teacher has a class of children, who have made about the same progress in their studies, he is enabled to concentrate his whole energies upon the instruction and education of *all* his scholars at the same time, and for the whole time they are in school, instead of being obliged to neglect one part of his class whilst he attends to another, which is necessarily the case, where children of different degrees of proficiency are assembled in one class-room, and which is always necessarily the cause of considerable noise and confusion, tending to distract the attention of both teachers and children.

But, besides the good classification, a further advantage, which results from this combination of schools, is the greater economy of the plan., When each school contains only two class-rooms, four times as many schools are required, as when each school contains eight rooms. And it is by no means true, that a school-building containing eight class-rooms costs as much as four school-buildings, each of which contains two class-rooms. Not only is a great expenditure saved, in the mere erection of the exterior walls and roofs of the buildings themselves, but a still greater saving is effected, in the purchase of land, as, instead of increasing the area on which the school is erected, it is always possible to increase its height.

Nothing can be more liberal, than the manner in which the Prussian towns have provided for their educational wants. The buildings are excellent, and are kept in most admirable order.

The town authorities are held responsible for all this; and, wherever I went, I found large, commodious, and beautifully clean school-rooms, furnished with all that the teachers could possibly require. Along the length of the rooms, parallel desks are ranged, facing the teacher's desk, which is raised on a small platform, so that he may see all his scholars. On either side of him are large blackboards, on which he illustrates the subjects of his lessons. On his right hand, there is generally a cabinet, for the reception of all the books and objects of instruction which belongs to the school; and all around, on the walls of the room, hang maps of different countries, and, generally, several of Germany, delineating, in a strong and clear manner, all the physical features of the different provinces and kingdoms which compose the "Fatherland."

The school-rooms are continually whitewashed; and should there be any neglect on the part of the town or village authorities to keep the school-buildings in proper order, or to provide all the necessary apparatus, the teachers have always the power of complaining to the inspectors, or to the country magistrates, who immediately compel the authorities to attend to these important duties.

Besides the schools, which are managed by school committees in the villages and towns, and which might be denominated public schools, there is another class, which would fall more properly under the designation of private schools.

If a private individual is desirous of establishing a school, as a means of earning his livelihood, or from a desire to offer to the poor of his neighborhood a better education, than they could obtain in the public schools, he is at liberty to do so, on the following conditions:—

1st, That the school be opened to public inspection, on the ground, that as the nation is directly interested in the moral education of its citizens, so it ought to be assured, that none of the children are subjected to immoral and corrupting influences, during the time when their minds are most susceptible of impressions of any kind, and most tenacious of them when received.

2dly, That no person be employed as teacher in such school, who has not obtained a teacher's diploma, certifying his character and attainments to be such, as to fit him for the office of teacher.

3dly, That the school be supplied with a play-ground, and that the children be allowed to take exercise there in the middle of the morning and afternoon school hours.

4thly, That at least a certain fixed amount of instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, singing, and science be given in the school.

5thly, That a sufficient number of teachers be provided for the children; and,

6thly, That the rooms are kept clean, well warmed, lighted and ventilated.

The profuse expenditure on all the material of education in the Prussian towns astonished me greatly, accustomed as I had been to the dame schools of England, and to the empty and repulsive interiors of many of our national school-rooms, with their bare floors and uncovered walls.

I took the greatest pains not to be deceived on this point; and hearing that, owing to some municipal disputes, education had made less progress in Berlin than elsewhere, I requested Professor Hintze of Berlin, to direct me to the worst school in the city, and, having visited several of the more perfect ones, I started one morning to see what was considered a poor school in Prussia.

It was managed by a teacher, who had established a school for the poor at his own expense, as a private speculation, and unconnected with the town committees.

I found a good house containing *four* class-rooms, each of which was fitted up with parallel desks, and was under the direction of a teacher, who had been carefully educated, and had obtained his diploma.

I found a good, dry, and roomy play-ground attached to the school, a very agreeable and seemingly intelligent head master, who was owner of the school, and manager of one of the classes; and the only cause of complaint I could discover, were, that the rooms were lower than the generality of school-rooms in Prussia, not measuring more than nine feet in height; that there was a paucity of maps, blackboards, &c.; that the desks were placed too closely together; and that the walls were not so white and clean as in the town schools. But I could not help thinking, while walking through the rooms of this building, if these people could only see some of our dame, and some of our dirty and unfurnished national schools, what a palace would they not consider this to be!

The regulations which I have been describing, by means of which the enormous expenses of such a vast educational scheme are divided between all the different districts of the kingdom, and by means of which each parish is held responsible for the education of its children, have been followed by this splendid result—that, notwithstanding that most of their town schools contain five or six times as many class-rooms as those of our country, the Prussian people have established 23,646 schools, which, in 1844, were attended daily by 2,328,146 children, and were directed by 29,639 highly educated teachers, of whom nearly 28,000 were young professors, who had obtained diplomas and certificates of character at the normal colleges! Now, could this magnificent result have been attained if the people, the clergy, and the government had not been at unity on this great question? Could it have been attained, if there had been no organization of the parishes and towns, by which the duties of the different educational authorities were clearly and distinctly defined? Could the government alone have borne the enormous expenses of establishing such a system? Could the government have even afforded to carry it on? And, above all, could private charity alone have effected so vast and splendid a result? These are questions for my readers to answer for themselves.

The central committees of each town are required by law to establish, in addition to the primary institutions, which I have described, one or more *superior primary* schools, the number of which varies according to the population of the town. The education given in them is superior to that given in the primary schools themselves, but is inferior to that given in the *gymnasia*. It is of a more practical character than the latter, and is quite as good as the education of the children of our middle classes. These *superior primary* institutions are intended for all those children, who have passed through the primary schools, and whose parents wish them to receive a better education than that given in the latter establishments, without their having to go through the classical course of the gymnasia.

The education given in these superior schools, as in all the public schools of Prussia, is gratuitous, and open to all classes of society. All the children of the small shopkeepers and artizans, many of the boys, who afterward enter the teachers' colleges, as well as many others, whose parents are to be found in the very humblest walks of life, and even children of the nobles, and of the richest classes of society, are to be found pursuing their studies there together, in the same class-rooms, and on the same benches. I have myself seen sons of counts, physicians, clergymen, merchants, shopkeepers, and poor laborers working together in one of these classes in Berlin.

Above these *superior* schools are the *real* schools and *gymnasia*, or colleges, where a *classical* and *very superior* course of education is pursued, and where the children of the more wealthy classes are instructed. They are under an entirely different direction; and all I have to do with them here, is to mention, that even these institutions are open gratuitously to all, who wish to avail themselves of the education which they offer. Even in these *classical* colleges children of poor laborers are sometimes to be found studying on the same benches on which sit the sons of the rich. It is very instructive to observe, that in Prussia, where one would imagine, according to the doctrines preached in England, that the government should, until the late revolution, have feared to advance the intelligence of the people, no one has seemed to have an idea, that too much instruction could be imparted to the children of the poor. On the contrary, every one has acted as if the public order and public morality depended entirely upon the people being able to think. A theoretically arbitrary government has been doing every thing in its power to stimulate and enable the people to educate their children as highly as possible, and has been for years telling them, that the prosperity and happiness of the country depend greatly on the training of the children; while here, in our free country, we still find people speaking and acting, as if they feared, that education was the inevitable harbinger of immorality and disaffection.

There are also in Prussia a great number of *endowed* schools, which derive their incomes from the rents of lands, or from the interest of money bequeathed to them by charitable individuals, or which have been founded and endowed at different times by the government. For each of these cases, there is an exception made in the operation of the municipal regulations, which I have described: neither of these classes of schools are directed by Schulvorstände, or by the town committees. The teachers for the *former* class are chosen by the trustees, appointed by the will of the devisor; the county courts being enabled to annul the elections, if a bad selection is made. The trustees, however, are unable to appoint any person, as teacher, who has not obtained a diploma* of competency from the provincial committee, appointed to examine all candidates for the teachers' profession. In fact, no person can officiate as teacher, in *any* Prussian school, unless he has obtained such a diploma. This is the parents' guarantee, that he is a person, to whom they may safely intrust their children. The teachers of the class of schools, which have been founded and endowed by government, are appointed by the county courts. The town committees have, however, the surveillance and inspection of all these schools, and are obliged by law to assist them from the town funds, if their own do not suffice for their efficient maintainance. The municipal authorities are also obliged to assist all the parents, who are too poor to do it themselves, to purchase the books, slates, pencils, &c., required for the class instruction; and they are also obliged to provide decent clothing for such children, as are too poor, to obtain a dress sufficiently respectable for school attendance. And here, I can not help remarking, on the general appearance of the children throughout the provinces of Prussia, which I have visited. They were generally very clean, well dressed, polite, and easy in their manners, and very healthy and active in their appearance. In whatever town of Prussia the traveler finds himself, he may always satisfy himself on this point, if he will take the trouble to walk out into the streets, between twelve and two o'clock in the morning, *i. e.*, between the hours of the morning and afternoon classes. In some towns, a stranger would imagine, either that the *poor* had no children, or that they never let them go out of doors. All the children he would see in the streets would appear to him to be those of respectable shopkeepers. This is a very satisfactory proof of the good effects of the school system, as cleanliness and neatness among the poor are invariable symptoms of a satisfactory moral and physical condition.

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* For an account of diplomas, see page 188.

The law requires that every school, both in town and country, shall have an open space of ground adjacent to it, where the children may take a little exercise in the mornings and afternoons. This is a very important regulation, and is well worthy our imitation. The children, in Germany, are never detained more than an hour and a half in the school-room at one time, except when the weather is too bad, to allow of their taking exercise in the open air. Every hour and a half, throughout the day, they are taken into the play-ground for ten minutes' exercise by one of the teachers; the air of the school-room is then changed, and the children return refreshed to their work. In the towns this regulation insures other and greater advantages, as it keeps the children out of the filth and immorality of the streets. In most cases, our town-schools have no yard attached to them, so that, if the children do change the bad and noxious air of the school-room, it is only for the dirt and depravity of the streets, where they are brought under evil influences, much more powerful for injury, than those of the schools are for good.

In some provinces of Prussia, there are still some few of the old class of great landowners, between whom, in former days, the whole of Prussia was divided, until Stein and Hardenburg put the laws in force, which destroyed the old feudal system, and gave the peasants an interest in the soil. It is, therefore, an interesting question to examine, what the law requires these landlords to do for the education of the people on their estates. I have already mentioned, that the selection of the teacher is left to them, but that the government reserves the right of a veto upon their choice, in all cases where an injudicious election is made. The landlords are required to keep in good repair the schools upon their estates, and to pay the school-fees for the children of all the poor laborers living upon them, and not able to pay it themselves. They are also obliged to furnish the materials, required for the erection or repair of all necessary school-buildings; the fuel required for the school-rooms and teachers' houses through the winter; and, where the school is not endowed, the sum which is necessary for the teachers' salaries. The children of the landed proprietors themselves, often attend the village schools, and work at the same desks, with the sons and daughters of the poorest peasants—a proof of the excellent character of the education given in the primary schools, and of the high estimation, in which the teachers are generally held by all classes of society.

About eight or ten years since all the German schools were conducted on the Bell and Lancasterian methods, the children being left almost entirely in the hands of young and half-educated monitors, as in our own parochial schools at the present day. The results of this system were so unsatisfactory that they soon occasioned a powerful reaction in the contrary direction. The German governments, perceiving how grievously the mental education and mental development of the children were retarded by subjecting them to the imperfect care of half-educated monitors, prohibited all employment of monitors in the parochial schools. Hence, it became necessary to considerably increase the staff of teachers, as well as the expenditure required for their support. In the towns this has been productive of beneficial results, as the towns can always raise sufficient funds for the support of a sufficient number of teachers. I generally found that each of these schools throughout Germany had a staff of from six to twelve teachers attached to it, each of whom had attained the age of twenty years, had been specially educated in the classes of the primary, secondary, and normal schools, from his sixth to his twentieth year, and had obtained a diploma certifying his fitness for the profession to which he had devoted himself.

But in the village schools the results of this rejection of all monitorial assistance has been less satisfactory. The villages are not generally rich enough to support more than two teachers, and often not more than one, and this, too, in many cases, where there are 150 children who attend the school. In these cases, therefore, monitors are greatly needed to assist in maintaining order among one part of the children, while the teacher is instructing another part, and to relieve the teacher from the more mechanical part of class instruction, so that he may apply his undivided attention to those branches of instructions, in which his superior skill, knowledge, and experience are most needed.

But the prejudices which the Germans have imbibed against the monotorial system, are, as yet, too strong to allow them to perceive the necessity of employing monitors in the village schools. Whenever I addressed a German teacher on this subject, he immediately answered, "Oh! we have had enough of your Lancasterian methods; depend upon it, we shall never try them again." It was very surprising to me to see, how universal and how strong this antipathy to monitors was throughout Germany; but it served to show me, how deep an interest all classes took in the prosperity of the schools, as it was evident that they only rejected this means of lessening the parochial outlay in the support of teachers, because they believed it to be essentially injurious to the sound mental progress of the children.

No doubt that the old monitorial system was deserving of all their maledictions; but it would well become the Prussian educational authorities to consider, whether the means between the old system and the present, such, viz., as the monotorial system pursued in Holland and France, is not the true state of things to which they ought to aspire. In these countries, the teachers train the most promising of their oldest and most advanced scholars as monitors. They give them instruction in the evenings when the day's work in the school-room is over. These monitors are paid by the parochial authorities just enough, to make it worth their while to remain at their posts as assistants to the schoolmasters until about seventeen years of age, after which time they are removed to the normal colleges to be trained as teachers, whilst other children take their places in the village schools. To these trained and paid monitors nothing is intrusted, but the mere mechanical parts of school teaching, *such as the elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic.* All the higher and more intellectual parts of school education, such as religious instruction, history, geography, and mental arithmetic, are conducted by the schoolmaster himself. But the principal service which the monitors render to the teachers is, in preserving order and silence in the school, and in watching over those classes, which are not for the time being receiving instruction from the schoolmaster. By this means, one able master, with the aid of two intelligent monitors, may conduct a school of 100 children; whenever the number, however, exceeds 100, there should in all cases be, at the least, two superior teachers.

As I have already said, the want of monitors is felt most in the village schools; for the town schools are conducted in a totally different manner. In a town a greater number of children are found assembled together, and greater funds are always found at the disposal of the school authorities, who, it will be remembered, are elected by the people. In each of the Prussian towns, several great school-houses are generally built, each containing from four to sixteen class-rooms. The number does not, I believe, generally exceed eight in one school-house, and some have not more, but hardly any fewer than four. In Germany, except in the poorest villages, different classes are never instructed in the same room. Even in the villages, there are generally two or three class-rooms in the village school-house, for each of which a separate teacher is maintained. This plan of teaching the different classes in different rooms, adds incalculably to the efficiency of the education given. In each room, only one voice is heard at a time—the voice of the teacher or one of the children. The attention of the children is not disturbed or diverted from the teacher by what is going on in another class. Each room is perfectly quiet. The teacher can be heard distinctly, and can hear every noise in his class. Besides all this, for equal numbers of children four or five times as many teachers are employed in Germany as in England. Each child receives, therefore, four or five times as much assistance and attention from a learned man as a child does in England. The individual progress, therefore, of the children in the German schools (and the same may be said of the Swiss schools,) is very much greater than that of the English children. Over each school-house one head teacher is appointed, who is an elderly and experienced man, and who himself takes the management of the highest class. Under him are appointed a number of younger teachers, corresponding to the number of class-rooms in the school-house. These younger masters board with the head teacher in his house, which is generally constructed large enough to afford lodgings for the staff of masters required for all the classes. If the class-rooms do not exceed four, the boys and girls are mixed together in the different rooms, and are divided into four classes, according to their proficiency. If, however, the school contains more than four class-rooms, then the girls and boys are separated into two distinct divisions, each of which is divided into three or four classes according to the proficiency of the children. In the town schools, therefore, it is much easier to dispense with monitors, as no teacher is perplexed with having to direct different classes in the same room. Each teacher has only to instruct a small number of children of about the same proficiency in the same subject, at one time and in a separate room. He can, therefore, at all moments engage all his children in the same occupations, keep them all under his constant inspection, and direct their operations much better than where these operations themselves are necessarily of three or four different kinds at the same time. But even in such case, the teachers require the assistance of monitors, in the writing, drawing, and ciphering exercises; or else, as I have often observed, when the teacher's attention is withdrawn from the class, or when he is attending to some individual pupil in one part of the school, the juvenile spirit is sure to begin to effervesce in another, and to produce noise, disorder, and interruption. This want of assistance for the principal teachers was almost the only fault I could find with the Prussian schools.

The school-buildings were generally excellent, and often handsome; the class-rooms numerous, lofty, capacious, and *always* clean; for the inspectors take great care that the parochial authorities do not neglect the whitewashing and repairs. The scholars themselves were always exquisitely clean. The rooms were constantly whitewashed and scoured. The law obliges the school committees to do this. If any neglect in these particulars is evident, the inspectors and county magistrates are empowered and required to act for the parochial committee, and to raise the funds necessary for the purpose by a parochial rate levied upon the householders. But from the beautiful neatness and cleanliness and from the excellent repair of the school-rooms which I saw in different provinces of Prussia and Germany, it appeared to me, that the people fully understood and appreciated the importance and utility of these regulations.

The class-rooms were always well fitted up with parallel desks and forms, and almost always with excellent maps of Germany, on which all the leading physical characteristics of the country were delineated in a strong and forcible manner, and on a large scale; and also with smaller but excellent maps of other parts of the world.

At one end of each class-room is the teacher's desk, raised a little above the others. Behind, and on each side of him hang great blackboards, fastened to the wall by moveable hinges. On these he writes copies of the writing exercises, and draws all his figures, &c., for the illustration of his lessons: and on all these also each child is called upon in turn to explain arithmetical operations, or to fill up or draw the outlines of a map of some part of Europe, or of one of the principal countries of the world. The space between the teacher's desk and the other end of the room is filled with parallel rows of desks and forms, at which the children work; for the Prussians are too anxious to make the children interested in their school duties, to think of making education more disagreeable to them than it necessarily is, by forcing them to stand through nearly the whole of their lessons, as they do in many of our national schools to this day. Each school has also a yard, where the children take exercise in the middle of the morning and afternoon school hours, to refresh themselves, and to awaken their faculties, while the windows of the class-rooms are thrown open, and the air of the rooms is thoroughly purified.

Some persons seem to imagine that, if a school-room is built and children attend it, the results must needs be good; but it behooves them to examine whether they have left any influence at work upon the children's minds, stronger than the influence for good which the school affords. If it is so, it seems a little sanguine, to say the least of it, to hope for happy results. The whole system of things in Germany is so entirely different to that in England, that any one who attempts to describe it to Englishmen must necessarily appear to exaggerate. I can only say, let doubters go and inspect for themselves, and I am convinced they will own, that I have not said nearly so much as I might have done, in favor of the wonderful efforts the people and the governments are making to advance the great cause of popular instruction.

Each child buys its own books and slate. Those children, however, who are too poor to pay the small school-fees, and who are consequently sent to school at the expense of the town or parish in which they dwell, are provided with books, &c., by the town or parochial authorities. The children generally carry their books home with them; and every morning at a quarter to eight o'clock, a traveler may see the streets of a German town or village filled with boys and girls, neatly dressed and very clean, hurrying to school; each of the boys carrying his school-books in a small goat-skin knapsack on his back, and each of the girls carrying hers in a small bag, which she holds in her hand. The cleanliness and neatness of dress which I generally observed among the children very much surprised me, and always served to convince me how the educational regulations were tending to civilize and elevate the tastes of the lower classes throughout Germany. At first, I was often disposed to doubt the veracity of my companions, when they assured me that the children I saw were the sons and daughters of poor laborers.

The very way in which children of different ranks of society are to be found mingled in the same school, serves to show how superior the civilization of the lower orders in Germany is to that of the English peasants. With us it would be impossible to associate, in the same school, the children of peasants with those of even the lowest of our middle classes. But in Germany, I *constantly* found the children of the highest and of the lowest ranks sitting at the same desk, and in almost every school I saw the children of the lowest and of the middle classes mingled together.

In Berlin, one of the teachers, on my asking him whose sons the boys at one of his forms were, requested them to tell me in what occupations their fathers were engaged. From these boys I learned, that one was the son of a clergyman, another of a physician; that others were the sons of small shopkeepers, and others the sons of errand-men and porters. Now, were not the children of the errand-men and porters very much more civilized, polished, and, if I may use that that much abused word, more *gentlemanly* than the same class of children in England, such an association would be totally impossible. And yet this to us incredible state of things, exists with infinitely less discontentment and social disturbance than we find among our laboring classes in England.

But it must not be imagined that the educational system is in a stationary state, that the people and the government are resting upon their oars, or that they now think that they have done enough, and that they can let the stream bear them on without further exertion. Far, far otherwise; on every hand extensive improvements are going on, as if they had only commenced last year, to take any interest in the question, and as if they were only now beginning the work, like fresh laborers. Here I found a new and handsome school-house just finished; there, another one in building; and here, again, old houses being altered and enlarged. In one town I found them preparing a great building for a normal college; in another, I found them preparing to remove one of these noble institutions to a more commodious and larger set of buildings; and wherever I traveled, I found the authorities laboring to establish infant schools, as well as to perfect the educational institutions of their several localities. It sometimes appeared to me as if all the resources of the government must be devoted to this object; whereas my readers must recollect that, except in the cases of the normal colleges, this great work is effected by the people themselves; and that the enormous expenditure, by being divided between all the different towns and parishes in the kingdom, is scarcely felt. Since 1816, every year has witnessed a further progress: old schools have been pulled down, new ones have been erected; the old and less efficient teachers have gradually died off, and their places have been supplied by excellently trained masters who now direct the schools; the young men who are about to enter holy orders have been obliged to study pedagogy, in order to fit themselves to be inspectors; the regulations respecting the factory children, which I have given in an earlier part of this work, have been put in force;

the *minimum* of the teachers' salaries has been considerably raised, and the system of teachers' conferences has been perfected, and put into operation.

I shall now show what restrictions exists on the free choice of books by the teachers. The Prussian government has here had two evils to guard against: one of these was the retarding of the gradual reform of school-books, which reform will always take place, when the teachers themselves are learned men, when they thoroughly understand the theory and practice of pedagogy, and when they are not fettered by unwise restrictions; and the other was, the admission into the practical schools, of books of an irreligious or immoral tendency. These two evils are guarded against in the following manner:

No book can be used in any school of the provinces, until the authorities composing the provincial Schulcollegium, which has the direction of the higher schools and gymnasia, as well as of the normal colleges of the province, have licensed it, or sanctioned its admission. Any book which has been so sanctioned, can be employed by any schoolmaster of the province in which it was licensed. There are, in every province, a great number of works on religion, history, science, &c., which have been thus licensed, and from which the teachers are at liberty to choose. But, if a schoolmaster writes a book, which he deems better qualified for school use than those already published, or if he desires to employ a work written by some one else and which is not licensed, he forwards a copy of it, through the inspector, to the provincial authorities, in order to obtain their consent, which is only refused, where the book is positively imperfect or unfit for the young. In the schools, which I personally inspected, I generally found the school-books very excellent, and written either by teachers, or by some person engaged in the educational profession. Coming as they do from men of very long experience in the practice of pedagogy, they are generally well adapted to answer the wants, which the writers themselves have experienced, in the exercise of their professional duties. With the above restrictions, the choice of books is left entirely to the schoolmasters.

The character of the instruction given in all the German schools is suggestive; the teachers labor to teach the children to educate themselves. There is little or no "cram" about it, if I may use an old university phrase. In most of the best primary schools of England, the teacher still contents himself with the old cramming system; that is, he tries to crowd the memories of his scholars with facts, and continually exercises their memories, without ever attempting to develop and strengthen any of their other intellectual faculties. Now, we know but too well, that a man may have the most retentive memory, and the best stored mind, and yet remain as incapable of reasoning, as improvident, and as irrational as ever. He may be full of facts; but may be as unable to make any use of them, or to turn them to any good account, as one bereft of the faculties of speech, sight, and hearing. If a man can not use his reasoning powers, he is much better without knowledge; to impart facts to a fool, is like intrusting fire to a madman. The great *desideratum* for the poor, as well as for every one else in this world, is a capability of using the reasoning faculties; not that this will always save a man from false ideas and from irrational conduct, but that a man who possesses it will be *more likely* than any other, to take a right view of his position in life, his duties, and his advantages, and will be more likely to understand the best means of improving them.

Next, then, to implanting good principles in the child, the first object of every system of instruction should be, to teach it how to use the high and important faculties, which Providence has given it, as the means by which to insure its temporal happiness and continued self-improvement. Facts are necessary, but facts alone are not enough: to cram a child's mind with facts, without constantly exercising its reflection and its reason, is like feeding it with quantities of rich viands, and denying it all bodily exercise.

The German teachers are, therefore, taught that their duty is to awaken the intelligence of their children, far more than to fill their heads with facts, which they would not know how to use, unless their reasoning powers had been first cultivated. The schoolmasters do not therefore hurry over many facts in one lesson; but endeavor to make them think and reason about the subject of instruction.

The method of instruction is left to the unfettered choice of the teachers, so that it is impossible to speak with certainty of the methods pursued in the majority of the schools; but in all that I visited, I invariably found the simultaneous method pursued. By this the scholars are divided into different classes, and each class is instructed separately. This is not done on the old shouting plan, where one or two clever boys give the answer, and all the others follow in the same breath, and often without having known what the question was. Not so: the class under instruction first reads a section or chapter from the school-book, relating to the subject of instruction; the teacher then endeavors to illustrate what the children have been reading, to make them clearly understand it, to assure himself that they do *understand* it, and to impress it more clearly and firmly upon their memories. All this he does by suggestive questions, which he himself does not answer, until he has first tried whether any of the children can answer them for themselves. When a question is put, all the children, who are prepared to answer it, are told to hold up their hands, and the teacher then selects one child, who stands up and gives what he conceives to be the answer; if he is wroug, another is selected to correct him, and so on in like manner; but until the teacher has called upon some one to answer, not a single word is allowed to be spoken by any member of the class. If no one can answer the question, the teacher, before answering it for the children, excites their curiosity about it by questions and hints, and stories illustrating or partially explaining the subject under discussion; and when he has succeeded in interesting the whole class in the answer, he then gives it, but not before. By these means, the reflective powers of the children are exercised and trained; they are taught to think, to inquire and to reason, and their minds acquire strength and activity. During every lesson the teacher stands, and the children sit before him at their desks. The most perfect silence is observed, except when broken by the answer of the scholar fixed on to reply, or by a question made by a scholar seeking explanation, or by a laugh at some amusing story or joke of the teacher. No lesson is continued long. The subjects of instructions are changed about three times in every two hours; and, at the end of every two hours, the children of all the different classes meet in the play-ground, under the charge of one of the teachers, to get some fresh air and a little exercise.

The great object of all this is to make the lessons as interesting and attractive as possible to the children, to keep up their attention, and to gradually develop all the powers of their minds.

This system enables the German teachers to watch and tend the progress of each individual child. No child can screen idleness or ignorance, behind the general shout of the class. The teacher sees instantly, if a scholar fails often to hold up his hand; and as he questions those, who do hold up their hands, by turns, he soon finds out if a child is really attending or not.

One thing which greatly surprised me in all the German and Dutch schools was, the great interest the children evidently took in the subject of instruction. This is to be explained entirely by the manner, in which they are treated and instructed by the teachers. The teachers address them as intelligent, rational beings, and in a conversational manner, as if they expected them to listen and to understand. The teachers further excite their interest by showing them, in all their lessons, the practical use of the knowledge they are acquiring, Constant references are made to the different pursuits, in which the children will be engaged after leaving school; to the commerce of the country, and the way in which it is supplied with the various articles of foreign produce which it requires; to the duties of citizens; to the history of the country; to its produce, its physical chacteristics, and its political relations; to farming, in its various branches; to the great inventions and vast undertakings of the day; to the wonders of foreign countries; and, in fact, to all the newspaper topics of the day.

I have myself been obliged to answer questions in the German and Dutch schools about the navy of England, the wealth of England, our metropolis, our colonies, and the miseries of Ireland.

Instruction, or amusement which will excite the scholars to seek instruction, is sought from all the subjects and allusions started by the lesson. The children are made to see the end of instruction and the object of schools in every lesson which is given them. The teachers encourage them by words and looks of approval.

A few words, such as "that's right, Charles," "that's a very good answer," "you have explained it very well," "well done indeed," and such like explanations, stimulate the children as if they were at a game. Added to this, that the teachers are so admirably drilled in the art of teaching, that they perfectly understand how to make every thing clear and comprehensible to the least intelligent scholar of the class, while they are so well educated, that they are able to illustrate each lesson by a hundred interesting stories or descriptions.

The subjects of instruction in the primary schools vary in the different classes. In those for the younger children, who have only just entered the school, they are confined to Scripture history, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing; but, in the classes for the elder children, not only are higher and more advanced exercises in the above subjects given, but the scholars learn also German history, geography, drawing, and mental arithmetic. In this last subject of instruction, I sometimes found astonishing progress made. Besides the above lessons which the schoolmasters are obliged by law to teach in all schools, the children learn to recite the most beautiful of the Psalms and the finest passages of Scripture, as well as the most celebrated national melodies. In the higher elementary schools, or, as they are called, the higher burgher schools, which are open to all the children who like to enter them after leaving the elementary schools, and which are attended by the sons of small shopkeepers and of laborers also, the course of education is much higher, embracing not only a continued exercise in the different subjects of instruction which I have enumerated, but in addition to these, geometry, universal history, and the French language. No child is *obliged* to attend these schools; but all are admitted, who wish to continue their education there after leaving the primary schools. These schools are only to be found in towns; but each town is *obliged* by law to support *at least* one of them. They are generally very well attended by the children of small shopkeepers, and contain also many children from the poorest ranks of society.

The method of teaching these subjects generally, has already been given under the head of Primary Schools in Germany, in the language of Prof. Stowe and Mr. Mann. We will now give from Prof. Bache, and other authorities, the organization, study table, and methods of instruction of several schools of different grades.

BURGHER SCHOOL AT HALLE.

The series of schools, which now cluster about the Orphan-house of Halle, are called after the name of its founder, the Franke Foundations, and embraces the whole range of public instruction. It begins with the common or elementary schools, in which the instruction terminates at the age of twelve or fourteen years; contains a "higher" or middle school, called, also, a "burgher school," the courses of which end at fourteen or sixteen years, and where the pupil is prepared to enter life as a tradesman. Also, a "real school," its courses ending at sixteen or eighteen, and intended to prepare for the higher mechanical occupations; and a classical school, or "gymnasium," retaining its pupils until eighteen or nineteen years of age, and fitting them for admission to the university.

The attendance on these schools varies from year to year, being made up of pupils from other parts of Prussia, as well as from Halle. The attendance, at the date of Dr. Bache's visit, was as follows:

Free School for boys	350,	in four	classes.
“ “ “ girls	350,	“	“
Burgher School for boys	600,	twelve	“
“ “ “ girls	400,	eight	“
Superior “ “ “	100,	six	“
Real “ “ boys	150,	five	“
Gymnasium or grammar school	300,	six	“
Pædagogium	80,	five	“
Total,	2330		

In the establishments for education there were at the same time, in the orphan house, 114 boys and 16 girls, in the boarding school 230 boys, and in the pædagogium 80, total 436.

The school which the boys of the orphan-house in general attend, is that called the "burgher" or citizens' school, sometimes also called middle school. Its objects are thus defined, first, "so to train the sons of citizens by instruction in useful science, that, at the age of fourteen years, they may be in a condition to begin a handicraft, or other trade;" second, "to prepare the pupils for the lower classes of a gymnasium, or for the classes of a real school, to accomplish which latter purposes Latin and French are taught."

The lower classes are, in fact, those of an elementary school, and the boys who leave the orphan-house at fourteen, are instructed exclusively in this establishment. The few who are selected to remain after fourteen go to the Latin school; Latin and French both are, however, studied in the upper classes of the burgher school, and the aptitude of the orphan pupils for language, is thus put to the test. The school is divided into four classes in reference to the progress of the pupils, and each is subdivided for convenience, with a teacher to every subdivision. Thus the same teacher gives instruction in all the subjects of study, to a class of boys numbering, on the average, about fifty.

The branches taught are: Exercises of speech and thought. Bible history. Religious instruction. Mental and written arithmetic. Elements of geography. (Knowledge of home.) Reading and writing taught together. Reading. Calligraphy. Stories from history. German grammar. Composition. Geography of Germany. German history. French grammar. General history. Higher arithmetic. Elements of geometry. Bible lessons. Christian morals. Christian doctrines. Elements of Latin.

There are teachers of singing and drawing, besides the regular class teachers. The pupils are examined privately once every six months, and publicly at Easter, when the change of classes takes place.

The exercises of speech and thought, the first subject on the above list, constitute the breaking-in, as it were, of the child, and being at the very threshold of instruction, try the teacher's skill more than many a learned branch. He must teach the pupil to think, taking care that his thoughts are expressed in appropriate words. Pestalozzi, who first practiced upon this idea, drew the child's attention to the human frame, as the subject of contemplation; others have preferred to bring him in contact with nature, in general, by making simple natural phenomena the basis of the inductive lessons; others, not surrounded by nature, made man and his dwelling their theme; others introduce simple lessons on objects of nature and art, which can readily be presented to the child for his examination, and on which, as a basis, to rear the superstructure of natural history, physics, and technology, in his advanced course. All these are good in their way, but such as I saw tried seemed to depend for their efficacy upon the circumstances of the school, and to be better or worse as the child found means to apply his newly acquired powers of perception, to observe for himself. Of all the plans, when the school is rightly situated for it, a reference to nature produces the best training of the heart, as well as the mind of the child. It would be impossible to present, here, even extracts from the numerous works which contain the methods employed in these exercises.

The Bible history and religious instruction next referred to, are principally given orally, the morals of the Bible and the events which it describes, being put into such a form that when the sacred book itself, at a later day, comes into the child's hands, he is prepared to read it with proper interest. This plan is diametrically opposed to that which employs it as the beginner's horn-book, and from which, I feel bound to say, I have never seen any good result.

I can not enter into details in regard to all the branches, but must be satisfied with noticing two which are here taught particularly well, namely, reading and writing, and geography.

The reading and writing are taught at the same time, according to the method of Harnisch, developed by Scholtz. The child makes a letter on his slate, after a copy upon the blackboard, and is taught to name it. The German language having a fixed sound for each letter, when the sound of the letter has been learned, not its common arbitrary name, but the sound which it has in composition, the pupil has made some progress toward knowing how to form combinations, which is the next step, the vowels being placed alternately before and after the consonant. These combinations are first written on the slate, and then pronounced. The next exercise consists in placing a vowel between two consonants, which is followed by other simple combinations. These being classified by careful study, the child is soon able to compose simple sentences, in which his ideas are developed, so that the mechanical operation of writing and of reading is interspersed with intellectual exercise. In this the talent of the teacher is strikingly exhibited, and a prescribed routine of instruction would fail in its object. The written letters being once learned, the next step is with the printed, and a reading book is not introduced until the child has felt the necessity of it in his further progress. It is then a relief, and not a task.

I saw, here, a class which had been under instruction for only nine months, the pupils of which wrote short sentences very legibly in a hand of medium size, spelled them correctly, and read them distinctly.

This method of learning to read is, in a great degree, inapplicable to our language, in which the vowel sounds are so numerous; but the union of reading and writing may have its advantages. The characters of the ordinary German writing are composed of very different forms from those of our round hand, and which are more simple, and, in general, angular; hence no considerable dexterity of hand is required to trace the letters, and only a brief practice in elementary forms is required. I saw classes of children of ten and eleven years old, at Zurich, who, by being constantly practiced in this method from their earliest instruction, had acquired a very striking facility of expressing their ideas clearly and correctly in writing. The method produces a facility of composition, in writing, as that of Jacotot does a fluency in speaking. The orphans entering at ten years of age, do not, in general, pass through this class.

The geographical instruction, founded upon the method of Pestalozzi, proceeds on strictly inductive principles, and is an example of how much may be done by making the pupil proceed from the known to the unknown. The following was the course of a recitation which I attended on the subject. The teacher drew, first, from the knowledge of the pupils of different objects or bodies, a definition of the term body, then led them to define extension, dimensions, &c., and thus furnished them ideas of space. Sunrise and sunset were used for establishing the position of the cardinal points, and that of the class-room was determined in reference to these. Then commencing with home, with a map of the city of Halle, they gave an account of its localities, and the history connected with them. Widening hence in circles, the natural and political features of the surrounding district were described, always indicating the real directions of places, &c. The pupil thus grasps every step of geographical knowledge; begins with his own house, rambles through his own town, makes excursions in its neighborhood, sets out on his travels through his fatherland, visits foreign parts, sees what is worth seeing in the natural and artificial state of the country, finally learns the relation of its parts and of the whole to other worlds, and thus the interest is kept up from the first to the last. The reverse method I compared with this over and over again; some teachers have found this tedious, others have mixed the two systems, but, judging by the comparative results, I give this method greatly the preference over others, as not only teaching geography, and connecting history with it, but enlarging the general intelligence, while it improves the memory. In the upper classes, the pupils use maps without names, and draw maps on the board, marking localities, &c. At other times, the places are indicated by one pupil, and named by another, with other variations of exercise. In the lower classes, the responses were frequently repeated by the whole class, and in the upper classes the instruction was more addressed to individuals. With all the inherent merits of this method, I have seen it wholly marred by a dull teacher.

The inductive method applied to any branch of knowledge requires time, patience, and some skill on the part of the teacher. The routine method, or positive teaching, is much easier to the instructor. The former at every step unfolds the mind, the latter frequently overburthens it. If the positive knowledge acquired by the first is entirely lost, the habit of thinking remains, while, if acquired by the second, there is nothing left unless some improvement of memory, and general development of the reasoning powers.

A pupil who has properly improved the advantages of this school, will have acquired a reasonable knowledge of the German language, of reading, writing, and arithmetic, of geography and general history, will be familiar with the history, morals, and doctrines of the Bible, and his general mental and moral development will be such as befits his age. If especially industrious or apt, he will have had an oportunity of beginning Latin and French, and if he prove to have a facility in language, will be transferred to the Latin school. It would seem that, if he have a peculiar disposition for mathematical studies, he should be sent to the real school to prepare him for one of the higher mechanical callings. If he should have had this advantage, on reaching seventeen years of age, he would have added to his stock of knowledge:

Further acquaintance with German and French. Latin and English if required, though not regularly taught. History and geography. Natural history. Mathematics. Practical arithmetic. Physics and chemistry. Religion. Improved writing, and drawing.

The Latin school, into which the more intelligent pupil now actually enters, conforms to the plan of the Prussian gymnasia. This gymnasium has six classes, divided each into two parts, and forming a connected series of instruction, one part being six months behind the other, except that the pupils of the two parts are sometimes assembled to listen to the same lecture.

The branches studied are: Religious instruction, Latin, Greek, French, mathematics, elements of physics, history, psychology, and logic. Poetry and rhetoric, and Hebrew or English, as the student may desire.

MILITARY ORPHAN-HOUSE AT ANNABURG.

The following plan of instruction was prepared by Dr. Harnisch, one of the most distinguished teachers of Prussia:

The course is divided into two parts, one an elementary course, consisting of religious instruction, arithmetic, the mother tongue, singing, writing, and exercises of induction, taught in four classes, between the ages of ten and fourteen. The other, a higher course, taught in three classes, and between the fifteenth and eighteenth years of age of the pupils. In order to rise to the place of a non-commissioned officer, the pupil must have gone through at least the lowest of the classes of the higher school. The subjects of instruction in this school are: religious instruction, arithmetic, singing, the German language, calligraphy, geography and history, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, and drawing.

The courses in the different branches are arranged as follows:

FIRST. *Religious Instruction.*

LOWER SCHOOL.

Class VII. Bible stories, psalms and hymns, appropriate to the season. Four hours per week.

Class VI. Histories from the Old and New Testament, portions of the history of the Christian church, catechism. Four hours per week.

Class V. Reading and explanation of the Bible, and of its arrangement. The gospel and historical works are selected, and the history is connected with the geography of the Holy Land. Catechism. Five hours.

Class IV. Doctrines of the Lutheran church, taught by Luther's catechism. Five hours.

UPPER SCHOOL.

Class III. Moral instruction, duties to God and man. Three hours.

Class II. Reading the Bible with comments, the pupils making abstracts. Three hours.

Class I. (Two years.) The first year a repetition of Luther's catechism. The second, a history of the Christian dispensation. Three hours.

Every class commits verses from the Bible to memory.

SECOND. *Arithmetic.* Mental and written arithmetic are taught together, that the readiness afforded by the one, and the accuracy of the other, may both be cultivated.

LOWER SCHOOL.

Class VII. The four ground rules, with three places of figures mentally. Application to questions in weights and measures. Three hours.

Class VI. The same rules extended. Three hours.

Class V. Fractions, with applications to weights and measures. Three hours.

Class IV. Proportions. Three hours.

UPPER SCHOOL.

Class III. The applications of proportions to questions of weight, strength, value, time, and general quantity. Two hours.

Class II. Exercises in practical algebra. Two hours.

Class I. Review of the course. First year, practical operations. Second, theory of arithmetrical processes. Two hours.

THIRD. *Vocal Music.*

LOWER SCHOOL.

Classes VII & VI. Practice of songs, adapted to youth of a cheerful, serious, military, or religious cast, with one part. Two hours.

Classes V & IV. Choral and other songs, with the different parts. Elements of music. Two hours.

UPPER SCHOOL.

Classes III, II, & I. More difficult choral pieces. Theoretical instruction continued. One hour. There is, besides, instruction given to a select choir, intended to conduct the vocal exercises of the church.

FOURTH. *Reading* In the lower classes, a readiness in reading, and in the higher, the style of reading, is attended to especially. Pieces learned previously, by heart, are recited.

LOWER SCHOOL.

Class VII. A good pronunciation, and some facility in reading. Six hours.

Class VI. Readiness in reading, and repeating the substance of what has been read. Familiar illustrations. Five hours.

Class V. Reading some work in reference to knowledge useful in common life. Four hours.

Class IV. Reading, with attention to emphasis. Four hours.

UPPER SCHOOL.

Class III. Reading the Bible and sacred melodies, with the view to correct reading in this kind of composition. Two hours.

Class II. Reading various selected works, in and out of the class.

Class I. Reading continued, and recitations from works previously read.

FIFTH. *Orthography and Writing.* These may be taught together in the same way as mental and written arithmetic; the teacher is, however, at liberty to follow his own method.

LOWER SCHOOL.

Class VII. Copying on slates from the blackboard. Four hours.

Class VI. Copying on paper, from the board, and from books. Four hours.

Class V. Writing from copy-slips, from books, or from dictation. (Practice in spelling and writing.) Four hours.

Class IV. Similar exercises continued. Four hours.

UPPER SCHOOL.

Class III. Copying useful papers, such as registers, accounts, contracts, &c. Two hours.

Class II. Calligraphy, with Roman as well as German letters; practice in orthography; reading of letters and documents in various handwritings. Two hours.

Class I. Copying papers relating to the management of the institution, as a practical introduction to business. One hour.

SIXTH. *Useful knowledge taught by induction*

LOWER SCHOOL.

Class VII. The pupils give their ideas, verbally, of surrounding objects of the most simple kind, of the commonest productions of nature and art. Conversations relating to them. Drawing the most simple mathematical figures on the slate. Three hours.

Class VI. Descriptions of animals and plants, the former in the winter, the latter in the summer term. Written remarks on these, serving to afford exercise in the formation of phrases and in orthography. Four hours.

Class V. The most essential parts of physics and natural history, the pupils taking notes of the lessons. Four hours.

Class IV. Compositions on various subjects. Letters relating to civil and military affairs. Four hours.

UPPER SCHOOL.

Class III. History of Prussia, and drawing of maps. Four hours.

Class II. General geography, particularly that of Europe. Passing from physical to political geography. Civil geography in connection with the former. Five hours.

Class I. Universal history. One year is devoted to ancient and one to modern history. Selections are made of the more important parts of history. Five hours.

The remaining studies only belong to the higher school.

SEVENTH. *German grammar and style.*

UPPER SCHOOL.

Class III. Logical and grammatical instruction of the German language taught.

Class II. Idiom of the language. Compositions on military subjects, with especial reference to correctness of grammar.

Class I. Acquaintance with the best writers. Exercises of composition on subjects taken from history.

EIGHTH. *Geometry.*

UPPER SCHOOL.

Class III. Teaching the names and properties of mathematical figures by induction, in connection with drawing.

Class II. Equations, with application to problems of common life.

Class I. Elements of trigonometry.

NINTH. *Drawing.*

UPPER SCHOOL.

Class III. Drawings from common objects, varying the positions, &c.

Class II. Copying flowers, or drawings of implements.

Class I. Architectural drawing with instruments, drawings of furniture, &c.

Dr. Bache makes the following remarks on the above plan:

I have allowed myself to present this extended programme, because it conveys, in as brief a compass as possible, excellent ideas of the succession of courses in an elementary school, and in a technical or trade school, for such the higher school must be considered. It should be remembered that the main purpose is the preparation of youth for the military service, and hence that the wants of the service are especially consulted. Another fact must be remembered, namely, that this is a Lutheran school, and therefore the religious instruction is adapted to the particular views of that church. The course of morals of the third class, I must say, however, seems to me out of its place, for although our duties to God and our neighbor are of course best learned from his Word, yet their inculcation by precept and example can not commence too early.

In the arithmetical course, the union of mental and written arithmetic is absolutely essential. The gradation appears to me good, and the application to questions of common life gives a zest to such studies, attainable in no other way. The theory of arithmetical processes, however, should accompany or follow more nearly their practical acquisition. Indeed, if they are taught as they ought to be, by induction, the theory goes with the practice.

If the youth at Annaburg take the same pleasure in the exercises of song, from the elements to the completion of the musical course, as those of the school* actually superintended by the author of this project, the success will be complete.

The connection of orthography and writing, especially if combined with early reading, is natural.

The exercises of induction, which in the lower classes are well drawn out, deviate from the appropriate track in the fourth class, and in the geographical and historical courses do not return to it. The system in both these branches is rather synthetical than inductive. There is a great temptation to break away from this method, into that of giving positive instruction, from the apparently greater rapidity of progress of the pupil; some teachers have abandoned it altogether, as too slow, though ultimately to their cost, as appeared to me in cases where I had an opportunity of comparing the results.

The writing is preceded by an introductory course of drawing, which might with excellent effect be so extended as to branch out into complete courses of drawing and writing.

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* Seminary for Teachers at Weissenfels.

As this plan results from an extended experience, the number of hours of instruction, per week, necessary to secure the results, is an important datum, and as such I have retained it, whenever it was inserted in the original programme.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF BERLIN.

The capital of Prussia is well supplied with public educational institutions of various grades, from the Krippen, (or mere nurseries for children whose parents are obliged to labor away from their homes for their daily support) and Kleinkinderbewahranstalten, (or institutions for the care of children between two and four, resembling infant schools, but not doing much in mere instruction,) to the university, with its departments of law, theology, medicine, and philosophy, and schools of preparation for gardening, agriculture, commerce, trades, and the mechanic, and fine arts. Of these, we have selected for description a few which belong to the department of primary education as understood in this country, as well as two which rank abroad with secondary schools, but correspond to the grade of public high schools, as now organized in our large cities, as parts of their systems of public instruction.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The elementary schools of Berlin are not organized as a part of a system of public instruction; they are partly private and partly public; some of them are intended exclusively for the poor, and are supported entirely by the city, and others are private establishments, in which the tuition of such poor children as attend, are paid by the city. In the burgher, or higher class of primary schools, as well as in the gymnasia and real schools, there are classes which belong properly to the elementary schools. In 1827, Mr. Reichelen, member of the school council, devised a plan of organization for a class of schools for poor children in Berlin, differing in some respects from that adopted in the kingdom at large. From the document embodying this plan we make a few extracts for the sake of explaining the organization of the schools, and illustrating the difference between these schools for the poor and our common schools.

Although, in the middle class, the co-operation of the parents and the influence of families may be depended on, the contrary holds with children of the lowest, whom it is often necessary to withdraw as much as possible from the baleful influence of the bad example of their parents. In the case of these children, the exertions of the school are wholly unassisted.

In the new organization, the two sexes should be separated; which will not increase the expense, provided the schools be so proportioned, as that one complete school shall contain two divisions having seventy-five each, one for boys and one for girls; these two divisions forming but one parish school for three hundred children, in one building.

The special character of the instruction proper for poor children, is defined in these two words, *prayer* and *work*.

The subjects of instruction for the first class should be:

1. For religion: the Bible, catechism, the positive truths of Christianity.
2. For the German language: language considered as the expression of thought; the most general rules of grammar, clear and intelligible pronunciation, reading and orthography.
3. Writing.
4. Arithmetic, to fractions and the rule-of-three, inclusive.
5. Singing, and particularly exercises in sacred choral music.

For the second class of boys, the most general elements of the natural sciences, of geography, and national history, as well as the elements of geometry and linear drawing should be added.

For the second class of girls, instruction in needle-work, knitting, &c.

For boys of from six to ten years of age, first class, twenty-six lessons of one hour each per week, from eight to eleven, and from two to four, every day; thus:

3 hours for religious instruction, (principally narratives from the Bible.)
12 hours for the German language, pronunciation, reading, orthography, &c.
5 hours for arithmetic; 3 for the slate as far as division, and 2 for mental arithmetic.
4 hours for writing.
2 hours for singing, (without counting the verses sung at the beginning and end of each day.)
—
26 hours.

For the second class of boys, from ten to fourteen years old, thirty-two hours of lessons per week, from eight to twelve, and from two to four, every day; thus:

6 hours for religion, instruction in the Bible, and catechism.
10 hours for the German language, reading, grammar, intellectual exercises.
5 hours for arithmetic, on the slate and in the head.
4 hours for writing.
2 hours for geometry, and linear drawing.
3 hours for natural philosophy, geography, and history, &c.
2 hours for singing, (not including the verses sung morning and evening.)
—
32 hours.

Girls' school, first class, from six to ten years old, twenty-six hours' lessons a week; thus:

3 hours for religion, (narratives from the Bible.)
7 hours for the German language.
3 hours for arithmetic, on the slate and mentally.
3 hours for writing.
2 hours for singing.
8 hours for needle-work, &c.
—
26 hours, from eight to eleven, and from two to four.

The second class of girls, from ten to fourteen, thirty-two hours' lessons; thus:

6 hours for religion.
8 hours for the German language.
4 hours for arithmetic.
3 hours for writing.
3 hours for singing.
8 hours for needle-work, &c., (in the afternoon.)
—
32 hours, from eight to twelve, and from two to four.

A child shall be in a condition to pass from the first class to the second as soon as it can read well.

It may perhaps seem strange, that in this plan of study no mention should be made of the time devoted to exercises of the memory and the mental powers. But the committee has considered that these exercises are included in the course of study, which keeps the memory and intellect constantly in action. The lessons in the German language will always furnish exercises of this kind; and in charity schools, above all others, it is necessary to avoid whatever is superfluous.

The children of the lowest class have generally received an ill bent from the example of their parents; the strictest discipline is therefore required. Order, neatness, activity, prompt obedience, are by no means the least important things a child has to learn. The kind of instruction, the gravity of the master, his devotedness to his pupils, are of themselves a solid ground-work for discipline. But rigor is sometimes necessary; and in a school for the poor especially, discipline should be inflexible in cases of disorder or indolence. But let the masters never forget, that the severest measures of discipline should be pervaded by a sentiment of tenderness and love, which chastises only to improve.

There are seven evening schools in Berlin. It will be sufficient to institute three more of fifty scholars each, two for boys and one for girls. The three ablest and most zealous parish schoolmasters shall be engaged to give from eight to twelve hours' lessons a week in the evening, for which they shall be paid a hundred thaler, (15*l.*) Reading and writing will be constantly taught there, and two hours a week devoted to religious instruction.

A greater number of evening schools will be opened, if they are found to be wanted.

Before entering upon a detail of the expenses which the city must bear for the support of fourteen parish charity schools, we will mention the very slight revenue which these schools can draw from other sources.

1. A government order, dated January 30, 1827, directs that in every parish charity school each pupil shall pay a fee of one silber-groschen (about five farthings) a month, in order not to violate the principle, that every father of a family is bound to contribute something to the school, even though he should claim for his children the favor of a gratuitous education; for the exaction of this trifling payment does not take from the instruction its gratuitous character, and this imperceptible charge produces nevertheless, in a school of three hundred children, the sum of 120 thaler, (18*l.*)

2. Amongst the poor, many who are unable to pay the terms of private schools, can nevertheless very well give, besides the groschen per month fixed by the minister of public instruction, a further sum, varying from five groschen as a minimum, to ten as a maximum. Out of three hundred children, this would apply to at least a fifth; and the minimum five groschen for sixty children, will give a revenue of 120 thaler, or 1680 for the fourteen schools, (136*l.*) This extraordinary fund (*Aushulfe-fund*) may be appropriated to the maintenance of the evening schools, to the instruction of children of a higher class who have fallen into poverty, and to rewards or pensions for schoolmasters in their old age, or to methodological courses for their improvement; so that the town would have no other expense to support than that of the fourteen parish charity schools.

3. Finally, the donations which the generosity of the citizens may give to the schools, but which can not be calculated on here, will form another resource for improvement in the education of the poorer classes.

The excellence of a school depends entirely upon the master; the choice of the master is therefore a matter of the first importance. In a school for the poorest class especially, where every thing is to be done, and where the master has constantly to struggle against the pernicious influence of the family and companions of the child, he should possess devotedness to his calling, patience, knowledge, an aptitude and taste for teaching; and with all these qualities, that rare disinterestedness which induces perseverance in a career at once humble and unaltering, and that enduring serenity of soul, that pious zeal which alone can secure prosperity to a school.

The masters who are examined and declared capable, shall be appointed for life; nevertheless, in case of negligence or misconduct, they shall be dismissed without appeal, by an order from the town authorities, approved by the school board.

Care should be taken, that whenever it is possible, the wives of the schoolmasters shall instruct the little girls in needle-work.

The immediate superintendence of each poor's school shall be specially confided to a committee consisting of one of the clergymen of the parish, named by the town school committee, and a member of the administration of the poor's fund, charged specially with the inspection of the external business of the school.

The supreme superintendence resides with the poor's administration and the town school committee, of which the *Stadt-Schulrath*, or school councillor for the town, shall always be a member.

The under masters shall be subject to the head masters; they may be dismissed at will either for incapacity or misconduct.

The purchase and maintenance of buildings for the schools in the various quarters, the choice and superintendence of the masters, the administration of the school funds belong to the administration of the poor.

The charity board of each quarter, the clergyman, and the officer charged with the special superintendence, shall attend to:

1. The admission of pupils.
2. The control of the attendance at the schools.
3. The departure of the pupils.
4. The annual reports.

1. As there will be fourteen parish charity schools required, the town will be divided into fourteen school wards, or districts, each having a complete school, (boys and girls.) All parents living in each district, shall apply to the charity board, and particularly to the special officer, to obtain admission for their children to the school.

This admission shall take place generally at two periods of the year, Easter and Michaelmas, at the commencement of the course.

The officer shall determine whether the child shall be admitted gratuitously, (always paying one groschen per month,) or be made to pay from five to ten silbergroschen, which will form the extraordinary fund.

This sum shall be paid in advance, from month to month, to an officer of the charity board chosen for this purpose, and shall be added each month to the extraordinary fund.

When the number of pupils fixed for each class of boys or girls (seventy-five) shall be complete, no more shall be admitted, and applicants shall be sent to the neighboring schools.

2. The regular attendance at the school shall be an object of special control and the most active vigilance; for this is the source from which flow all the advantages the school can produce. It would be very fortunate if parents and children were always willing of themselves to facilitate the measures adopted to secure regular attendance at the schools. Unhappily this is not the case, particularly in great cities. Although it is lamentable to be forced to use constraint, it is almost always necessary to commence with it; though in a town so populous as Berlin, its enforcement is attended with much difficulty.

In order to draw to the school all the children of an age to attend, the schoolmasters shall keep a register of attendance, and shall send, at the end of each month, an extract from this register, pointing out those who are most frequently absent.

The poor's commission, or one of its members, shall send for the parents, and if the excuses are insufficient, shall warn and threaten them. Every three months a list shall be made of the parents who will pay no regard to the repeated remonstrances of the commission, and the poor's administration shall then have recourse to means of constraint, conformably to section 48, of title XII.,* in the second part of the general code, which adjudges the penalties for this offense. As an example to others, it would be well to publish, from time to time, a list of the parents who shall have been fined for not sending their children regularly to school.

But it is not enough to insure, as far as possible, this regularity in the children who come to school; other measures are needed to secure that no poor child whatever be deprived of elementary instruction. In great cities there are always a considerable number of unfortunate persons who have no fixed residence, who are shifting about every quarter, every month, and often every day. We see only one way of coming at these, which is this: to communicate with all the private establishments of elementary instruction, that are not under the direction of the town, and to arrange that, at a certain time, all the primary schoolmasters in the town, without exception, shall deliver to their pupils a certificate of attendance, the form of which shall be printed and sent to all the schools. The parents shall be obliged to show these certificates. At the same period, the municipal police, or commissions chosen from among the citizens, shall, by the aid of the census tables, effect a general and simultaneous inspection of the whole town. The list of the parents who shall not have shown the certificates of attendance at school, shall be made up in each district, and they shall be summoned before the correctional police and fined according to law, and compelled to enter their children in the schools.

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* See page 95.

The execution of such a measure would doubtless depend much on the zeal of the authorities intrusted with it; but difficulties should not deter us from the performance of the sacred duty of remedying so deplorable an evil.

3. The law requires that the instruction of the school should be continued, until the clergyman charged with the examination of the children shall deem them sufficiently enlightened on the subjects most important to a rational being of their class. No fixed age will therefore be named at which they shall quit the school. This will be determined by an order from the master of the school, and the clergyman charged with the special inspection; and since nothing superfluous will be taught in any parish poor's school, this decision will depend upon the child's having profitably gone through the course of instruction of the school, and acquired those moral qualities which its influence ought to have produced.

It will in general require at least six years fully to accomplish the end of an intellectual and moral education. Thus, the greater part of the children who enter at six or seven, will be sufficiently instructed at thirteen to quit.

The leaving of the school shall take place only at two periods of the year, Easter and Michaelmas, after a public examination. At the end of this examination, the ecclesiastical inspector and the master of the school shall make a list of the pupils who may quit. There shall be delivered to each a certificate of departure, the form of which shall be printed; and the most distinguished shall receive, by way of encouragement, books suited to their capacity; the expense will be defrayed by the extraordinary fund.

It would also be very useful that the citizens should be bound under a penalty not to take into their service or apprenticeship any child who had not a certificate either of departure or of attendance.

4. The annual reports of the ecclesiastical inspector and the officer of the charity board will serve to measure the progress of the schools. They shall treat of the internal state of the school; of the instruction and discipline, as well as the household expenses; and shall point out imperfections, to the remedy of which the poor's administration and the school board shall direct their efforts.

Dr. Bache makes the following remarks on this class of schools in 1838:

There are at present nine public elementary schools in the city, but if the classes were confined to seventy-five pupils each, as originally intended, fourteen schools would be required, according to the calculations of Mr. Reichelen. The number of pupils, however, in charge of a single master, is greater than that just stated, thereby impairing essentially the efficiency of the schools.

The masters receive fixed salaries,* the fees which they collect, being paid over to the school committee. Of the two schools of this kind at Berlin, which I visited, one came up to the requirements of the law in the branches of instruction, except in the omission of linear drawing. In the other, both drawing and natural history were omitted. In the first, the branches were: 1. Religious instruction. 2. Reading. 3. German language. 4. The geography and history of Prussia. 5. Arithmetic. 6. Elements of geometry. 7. Weights and measures of the country. 8. Natural history. 9. Writing. 10. Singing. In none of these schools is the physical education of the pupils attended to. In each there is a girls' school, separated from that of the boys, and giving similar instruction, except that a portion of the time is occupied in works appropriate to the sex.

According to rule, these schools should have two classes for each sex, the head master teaching the first, and the assistant the second; in one, however, the two classes were sub-divided, forming four. The lowest class learns to read and write a little, and is then promoted. In the school of two classes, the lower contained pupils from six to nine, and even ten years of age, and the upper class pupils from eight and nine to twelve and thirteen years. This division requires the union in one class of pupils in very different stages of progress, and renders simultaneous teaching almost out of the question. The lower class has twenty-six, and the upper thirty-two to thirty-four hours of instruction per week, the former having one hour less per day than the latter, which is a good arrangement. There is a short interval of recess in the morning exercises. 1. The religious instruction consists, in all the schools, of Bible history, catechism, and reading the Bible. The schools are for Protestants, and the Lutheran catechism is used. 2. The reading is taught by the phonic method.* In many schools, the reading board and letter blocks are used; in one of those which I visited, writing was taught with reading. Exercises of thought and speech are interwoved with the elements of reading. The reading books are various, and combine progressive instruction in this branch with incidental information in morals, the history of the country, history of the church and of sects, biography, geography, natural history and elementary physics, grammar, &c. This incidental method is however, far from giving sufficient instruction, unless combined with the direct, though, by keeping it in view, the exercises in reading are prevented from degenerating into mere lessons of sounds. From the books which are allowed by the highest school authorities to be used, the committee of any particular school, after consulting the master, adopt such as they please, and when the teacher wishes a change, he applies to the same authority. The list of approved books is always sufficiently large to admit of the exercise of the individual judgments of the master and committee. The analysis of words and sentences is attended to in these schools, and exercises of induction are practiced, especially where younger masters from the teachers' seminaries are employed. As the method of teaching depends principally upon the master, it sometimes varies, even in the same school. If the precise routine were laid down, the spirit would be different, and thus, at last, it is the kind of education given to the teacher which determines the character of the school. It may be stated, however, that the instruction is either simultaneous or individual. 3. The German requires no special remark; it includes instruction in grammar. 4. The geography is taught by beginning with an outline of general geography, referring to maps, and learning from books. There is a great deficiency in the implements for teaching this branch. 5. Both mental and written arithmetic are taught. In one of the schools, the ground work is laid according to Pestalozzi's method, and the extent of the course is to the single rule of three, inclusive. Some of the pupils acquire great facility in mental arithmetic. 6. The geometry consists of the elements of form, according to Pestalozzi. 7. The weights and measures are taught as in our schools, by committing tables to memory, and not, as in Holland, by actual reference to the standards themselves. 8. The writing is taught by copying from ordinary copy boards, first on the slate, and then on paper. The blackboard is used in some cases. Writing from dictation is resorted to for orthography. The proficiency in this branch is, however, only tolerable. 9. Vocal music is taught by note, and particular attention is paid to church music. The school is begun and ended with a psalm or hymn, as well as with prayer.

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* The salary of the head master of both boys' and girls' schools, is two hundred and twenty-five dollars per annum, besides which he has his lodging and certain allowances, amounting to from seventy-five to a hundred and twelve dollars. The pupils pay at the minimum three, and at the maximum thirty cents per month. In one of the schools which I visited, the fees amounted in all to about nine dollars and seventy-five cents per month, the two-fifths of which, forming the master's perquisite, amounted therefore to about forty-seven dollars a year.

The ordinary discipline is conducted without corporeal punishment, though it is allowed in extreme cases. The individuals of the classes retain the same places, unless in cases of gross neglect, or as a kind of punishment. These places are in some schools, regulated in the upper classes by a writing lesson at the end of the month, in which correctness in spelling, as well as neatness of handwriting, are taken into the account.

In addition to the class of elementary schools above described, there are at Berlin many more, public and private, numbering in 1850, over twenty thousand pupils under the age of fourteen years. Many children of this age are also to be found in the burgher schools, as well as in the lower classes of the gymnasia and real schools. The burgher schools embrace a wide range of studies and methods of teaching, from which teachers and committees in our own country can derive many valuable hints. Although impressed with some general characteristics by the law, they differ according to the different circumstances of the population, whether in a large or a small village, or whether each is complete in its own course of study, or made preparatory in some of its classes, to entrance into a gymnasia or real school. There are upward of eighty schools of this grade, numbering over eight thousand pupils. We give descriptions of several of the most distinguished.

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* See page 196.

DOROTHEAN HIGHER CITY SCHOOL.

This is a burgher school of recent establishment, located in the Dorothean quarter of the town, from which the school takes its name. The pupils are admitted at six years of age, and may remain until sixteen, when they are prepared to enter a business life. If intended for a professional career, they pass from the second class to the third of a gymnasium or grammar school at about fourteen. At present, there is no first class, but this deficiency is to be supplied, and it is intended that a pupil of capacity, who has passed through its studies, shall be prepared for the second class of a gymnasium. In this case, private lessons in Greek must be taken, and I should judge that, when established, this class will be composed only of those who intend to finish their education here, so as to pass to a "real school," or to some "technical school." Many pupils are actually prepared here for entrance into the third class of a gymnasium, and the courses have been in part adapted to this purpose. The certificate of the first class of this school, as of others of its grade, gives the privilege of claiming but one year of military service, and qualifies for employments in the government bureaux, which, however, do not in general require a knowledge of Latin.

The school consists of about 200 pupils, arranged in five classes, of which the sixth and fifth, the lowest two, have courses of one year each, and the others of two years. There is a head master and four regular teachers, besides four assistants or special masters, who are employed during part of the school hours, or in teaching particular subjects. In the lower classes, each master teaches, in general, the whole round of subjects in which his class is occupied. In the upper classes, the teachers are confined to a few subjects. The arrangement of this matter is, however, at the discretion of the director or head master, who varies it as appears best for the interests of the school. In some of the classes, there is a special master for religious instruction, which, however, is not usual in Prussia.

The methods of instruction in this school are, in general, most excellent, and I was particularly struck with the small number of text-books employed. This is not peculiar, however, to this establishment, but is a feature in every good school in Germany. The master is expected to be so fully imbued with his subject, and expert in his art, as to be able to impart knowledge principally orally to his pupils, and in such a way as to adapt it to each individual; hence books are chiefly required for study at home, and individual training is possible to an extent which no routine system with books would permit.

The following statements give the course ofinstruction in detail:

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

Class VI. Stories from the Old Testament.
Class V. Stories from the New Testament.
Class IV. Bible History.
Class III. Reading and explanation of selections from the Scripture.
Class II. The evidences of Christianity.

The stories alluded to in the course of the sixth and fifth classes, are the most remarkable biographies of the Old and New Testaments. The stories are chiefly narrated by the teacher, frequently in the words used in the sacred volume; and in the fourth class, these same histories are read in the Bible itself. The narrations in the lower classes admit of various explanatory remarks and illustrations of the history, the natural history, and geography referred to. The subject of the narrative being thus familiar to the pupil, he is interested by the beautiful simplicity of the language of the Bible, which otherwise he might fail to perceive, since his attention would be engaged with the incidents about which he was reading, rather than with the style. The study of the Evidences of Christianity would, it seems to me, be more suitable to the age of the first than of the second class.

GERMAN LANGUAGE.

Class VI. Exercises of speech and thought (inductive exercises.) Preparatory exercises in reading by the phonic (lautir) method. Fluent reading of words and sentences.
Class V. The most important parts of etymology explained by reading lessons.
Class IV. Exercises of etymology. Reading from a text-book. Stories narrated for written exercises. Orthographical exercises.
Class III. Grammatical analysis of sentences.
Class II. The same continued. Original written exercises and descriptions.

The exercises of speech and thought are admirably conducted. In teaching to read, the letter-box and composition-board, are used. The lowest class is divided into two sections in receiving this instruction, so that each teacher has not more than twenty-five pupils under his charge. The reading exercises throughout the course, will be found included under the title of "German." Diesterweg's reading book for schools is used in the lower classes.

LATIN LANGUAGE.

Class IV. Regular verbs and other parts of speech. Translation of Gedicke's reading book.
Class III. Constructions varying from the German. More difficult parts of Gedicke's reading book. Cornelius Nepos.
Class II. Irregular parts of etymology. Syntax. Special reference to the differences from the German. Ovid.

Although the Latin is begun with the fourth class, it will be seen hereafter, that it occupies but a small portion of the time of each week, and as far as mental culture is concerned to those who leave off this study at fourteen, I can not say that observation indicated its utility. On the contrary, an imperfect knowledge is acquired, which can produce no good effect.

FRENCH LANGUAGE.

Class V. Exercises in reading and translating small sentences.
Class IV. Auxiliary and regular verbs. Exercises on simple sentences.
Class III. Irregular verbs and rules on the use of pronouns. Numa Pompilius begun.
Class II. More difficult parts of the French grammar. Numa Pompilius completed.

ARITHMETIC.

Class VI. The four ground rules, with numbers up to one thousand.
Class V. Denominate numbers, and preparatory exercises in fractions.
Class IV. Fractions.
Class III. Proportions, with their applications.
Class II. Elements of algebra, involution, and evolution.

GEOMETRY.

Class V. Regular figures, &c., from the elements of geometry.
Class IV. Lines, angles, and triangles.
Class III. Circles and Polygons. Mensuration of plane figures.
Class II. Similarity of figures, &c.

The geometry is here introduced earlier than in the seminary school, and, in general, the studies of the fifth class appear to me rather too much diversified for their age.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Class IV. Domestic animals.
Class III. Viviparous animals.
Class II. Birds and fishes, illustrated by a small collection.

Physics is also taught in the second class, so far as to give a knowledge of the general properties of bodies.

GEOGRAPHY.

Class V. Knowledge of home. The district. The province. The kingdom.
Class IV. General geography.
Class III. Principal countries of Europe.
Class II. Europe more in particular.

The knowledge of home includes an account of its history, its monuments, distinguished men, &c.

The course in geography follows the plan already described in the burgher school of Halle.

HISTORY.

Class IV. A general view of the more important historical events, with the study of particular ones in detail.
Class III. Ancient history.
Class II. Modern history, to the time of the reformation.

The general history is rather a series of biographical sketches than a regular narration of events, and serves well as an introduction to systematic historical studies.

WRITING.

Class VI. Preparatory exercises in the lower division. Letters and words in the upper.
Class V. Single letters and small sentences.
Class IV. Writing from copy slips.
Class III. Writing with special reference to orthography.

The elements of writing are taught according to Pestalozzi's method, the upper and lower limits of the letters being given by horizontal, and the slope by inclined lines.

DRAWING.*

Class VI. Preparatory exercises. Regular figures
Class V. Drawing of bodies in elevation.
Class IV. Solids bounded by plane figures and straight lines.
Class III. Solids bounded by plane figures and straight lines, with shadows.
Class II. Solids bounded by curved surfaces.

The method of instruction is that devised by Mr. P. Schmidt, which is described particularly in the account of the royal real school of Berlin, of which he is teacher.

Singing is taught by ear in the two lower classes, and by note in the upper. The execution by the second class, which I heard, was excellent. They sing in parts and by note.

The following table shows the time devoted, in school, during the week by each class to the several subjects of instruction:

ARRANGEMENT OF THE BRANCHES OF INSTRUCTION AT THE DOROTHEAN HIGHER CITY SCHOOL.

	HOURS PER WEEK.					
SUBJECTS OF STUDY.	Second Class.	Third Class.	Fourth Class.	Fifth Class.	Sixth Class.	Totals.‖
Religious Instruction,	2	2	2	2	4	18
German Language,	4	3	5	8	10†	42
Latin,	5	6	4			30
French,	4	4	4	2		26
Arithmetic,	3	3	3	4	4	26
Geometry,	2	2	2	2		14
Natural History,	4‡	2	2			16
Geography,	2	2	2	1§		13
History,	2	2	2	1§		13
Writing,		2	2	4	4	16
Drawing,	2	2	2	2	2	16
Singing,	2	2	2	2	2	16
Total,	32	32	32	28	26	

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* The book embodying Schmidt's method of drawing, has been translated and published by E. P. Peabody, Boston.

† Six hours of the instruction called "German," are devoted in the sixth class to learning to read, and four to "Exercises of speech and thought."

‡ Two hours of this instruction is given to physics.

§ In the fifth class, geography and history are combined under the title of "Knowledge of home."

‖ This column is obtained by doubling the numbers in those classes of which the course is for two years, and adding the numbers for the other classes.

The three higher classes have, as shown by the table just given, six hours of recitation every day, except Wednesday and Saturday, which are half-holidays, and on which they have but four hours. The lowest class has but five hours for four days in the week, and three the other two. . The increase of school hours in the upper classes, is manifestly a proper arrangement.

This distribution of time assigns to language, including German, Latin, and French, ninety-eight hours; to sciences and the kindred branches, namely, arithmetic, geometry, natural history, geography and history, eighty-two; to the branches which specially educate a part of the senses, while they have important applications in after-life, as writing, drawing, and singing, forty-eight hours, and to morals and religion, eighteen hours.

The burgher school connected with the teachers' seminary, recently established to educate teachers for the city schools, present several modifications of the above course, both in the order, and extent to which the studies are pursued.

SEMINARY SCHOOL OF BERLIN.

This is a burgher or middle school, founded in 1832, and attached to the Teachers' Seminary of Berlin,[*] taking its name from this connection. The school is for boys only, and, like other higher burgher schools, it serves to prepare for the third class of a gymnasium, as well as for entrance into active life. The same teachers give instruction in this school and in the seminary, being assisted here by the pupils of the seminary, to whom this serves as a school of practice. There are four regular teachers, besides the director, and also masters for drawing and singing.

The pupils are admitted as early as five and six years of age. The time of year for general admission is Easter. There are six classes in the school, the lower four of which each retain the pupil, if industrious and intelligent, a year, and the two upper, each two years. The whole course thus lasts eight years. Fifteen is, however, the usual age at which those who do not pass to the gymnasium leave the school. The average number of pupils in each class is thirty.[†]

Every month there is a private examination, in presence of all the teachers, at which the parents may attend. Every three months the pupil receives a note of progress and conduct, to be handed to his parents. Formerly a printed circular was sent, containing information in the form of an abstract from the account kept of recitations and conduct. It has been found, however, much more effectual to give a written statement of the character of the pupil, derived from the school journal, inasmuch as it insures more certainly the attention of parents. At Easter, a public examination is held, and those who have made a proper proficiency in their studies are passed to a higher class.

Arrangements exist by which those pupils whose parents desire it, may study under the superintendence of a teacher,[‡] during the time considered necessary for the preparation of the lessons of their class. The following division of the studies of the school is made by the director.

1. Religious Instruction.—Bible history. History of the Church and of the Reformation. Protestant Catechism.

2. Languages.—(*a*) German. Fluency in reading, and readiness in answering questions. Capability of writing an exercise upon an ordinary subject. Grammar of the language. (*b*) Latin. Orthography, etymology, and the elements of syntax. Translation of an easy Latin author (Cornelius Nepos) into German, or of an easy German author into Latin. (*c*) French. Knowledge of the Grammar. Facility in the translation of easy authors, and in writing compositions.

3. Sciences.—(*a*) Arithmetic. Mental and written. Positive and negative quantities. Involution and evolution. (*b*) Geometry. Plane geometry, with practical applications. (*c*) Natural History. Knowledge of the most important minerals and plants of the neighborhood. General

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[*] Of which Dr. Diesterweg is director.

[†] The school fees for the four lower classes are three dollars and seventy-five cents per quarter, and for the two higher classes four dollars and fifty cents per quarter, besides a charge of one dollar twelve and a half cents for fuel during the winter.

[‡] The fee for private study is four dollars and fifty cents per quarter.

outline of zoology and anthropology. (*d*) Geography, physical and mathematical. (*e*) History. Outlines of universal history. History of the country.

4. MECHANICAL ACQUIREMENTS.—(*a*) Reading. (*b*) A good handwriting. (*c*) Draughts of models, furniture, &c. (*d*) Singing.

It will be found, subsequently, that I have taken reading out of this class, and placed it beside the German language, to which it is subsidiary, and where it is classed in the preceding school.

In regard to the methods of carrying out this course, the following rules are laid down, and after carefully visiting the school, I can testify that they are fully observed. Indeed, this is one of the most interesting establishments which I saw, from the liveliness and activity which prevails in its classes.

The principle of induction is used, as far as practicable, in all branches; thus, in the earlier exercises, an object is presented to the pupil, who is led to notice its peculiarities, and to express his conceptions of them. He passes from objects which are known, and even familiar, to the unknown. Unknown objects are illustrated, if possible, by models, and the names of the parts are taught, and their uses or properties examined. The pupil proceeds first from particulars to generals. Subsequently, the order is reversed. He is made to understand whatever he is required to remember; to find out for himself, if possible, rather than to be taught directly.

Historical and similar subjects are taught by lecture, mingled with questions. The pupil is led to express himself readily and correctly; the teacher speaks no more, therefore, than is absolutely necessary for explanation, or to induce suitable answers. Self-exertion, on the part of the pupil, is constantly encouraged. He is taught to observe whatever is interesting. Imitation of what is seen, and repetition of what is heard, lead to original thought. This, however, is to be expected only from pupils of talent, and hence the teacher must be satisfied to allow some to learn what others have found out. The common mistakes of overburdening the mind with positive knowledge, and of too much system in teaching, are to be avoided, as both are injurious to mental development. The teacher must be able to make his subject interesting, and, therefore, should know how to communicate it without a book, and to elicit the knowledge of his pupil by proper questions. It is the mental activity of the pupil which will determine the measure of his success in after life; and hence this activity, rather than positive knowledge, should be looked to as the object of the instruction at school.

In regard to this last-named principle, although I consider it applicable, in a great degree, in elementary education, yet it appears to me that exception must be made of the cases of pupils who intend to enter active life on leaving the school, and to whom, therefore, the knowledge which they will have immediate occasion to use, should be imparted, to render their education effective. In general, where the mind may be cultivated by different studies, choice should be made of those most likely to be applied by the individual in his future career, especially if his education is necessarily to terminate before he can have time to master the complete circle.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

Class VI. Four hours per week. Narration by the teacher of stories from the Old Testament, in the words of the Bible, repeated by the pupils. Easy verses learned by heart.

Class V. Four hours. Stories from the gospels, except the latter portion of the Life of Christ. Church songs and Bible verses learned.

Class IV. Three hours. The Old Testament in a more connected form. The moral of the history is impressed upon the children. The Ten Commandments and church songs committed to memory.

Class III. Two hours. The life and doctrines of Christ, to the period of his imprisonment. Church history. Four weeks are set apart for learning the geography of Palestine.

Class II. Two hours. The Protestant catechism committed to memory and explained. Church songs and verses committed.

Class I. Two hours. A compendium of the history of the Christian Church, particularly after the apostolic age. History of the Reformation. Review of the Bible. Committing to memory psalms and hymns, continued.

GERMAN LANGUAGE.

Class VI. Four hours. Exercises of speech. Stories narrated to the children and repeated by them. After learning to write, these stories are written upon the slate.

Class V. Four hours. Exercises in orthography. Etymology begun.

Class IV. Four hours. Exercises in orthography and style. Every week a short composition is written on some subject which has been narrated.

Class III. Grammar continued.

Class II. Four hours. Original compositions, which are corrected during the recitations. Syntax commenced.

Class I. Three hours. Compositions on historical subjects. Essays written at home, and corrected in the class-room. Syntax continued.

Latin Language.

Class IV. Three hours. Declensions of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns learned. Examples learned by heart, and others written as an exercise at home. Auxiliary verbs conjugated.

Class III. Four hours. Comparison of adjectives. Regular verbs conjugated.

Class II. Four hours. Irregular verbs. Syntax begun. Translation from Latin into German.

Class I. Six hours. Grammar continued. Written exercises at home and in the class. Every four weeks an extempore exercise is written, which the teachers correct out of school hours. Cornelius Nepos read and construed.

French Language.

Class III. Three hours. Exercises in reading. Elements of grammar. Words learned by heart. Easy exercises written at home and in school hours.

Class II. Four hours. Regular and irregular verbs learned. Syntax. Translations from French into German. Words learned by rote.

Class I. Four hours. Written exercises of increased difficulty. Tables dictated and learned by heart. Voltaire's Charles XII. read.

Arithmetic.

Class VI. Four hours. Practical arithmetic. The fundamental operations taught with numbers from one to one hundred; first mentally, then with blocks, and afterward with figures. Exercises prepared at home twice a week.

Class V. Four hours. The four ground rules continued, with numbers as high as one thousand. Exercises in reading and writing large numbers. Mental arithmetic especially practiced. Addition and subtraction of abstract numbers.

Class IV. Four hours. Addition and subtraction revised. Multiplication and division of abstract numbers. Weights and measures explained.

Class III. Four hours. The four ground rules, with fractions.

Class II. Three hours. Revision of the above. Rule of three.

Class I. Three hours. In the first year practical arithmetic finished. Proportions and decimal fractions. Elements of algebra. Mental algebra.

Geometry.

Class IV. Two hours. The essential preparatory exercises in form, in connection with drawing. Rudiments explained.

Class III. Two hours. Practice in the position of points, drawing of lines, angles, plane figures, representations of solids.

Class II. Two hours. Elements of geometry proper, the point, line, angles, triangles, and measures of straight lines, surfaces, and contents.

Class I. Two hours. Plane geometry completed, with practical exercises. Every alternate six months lessons in physics are given.

Natural History.

Class II. Two hours. In the summer term, study of certain classes of plants. In the winter term, of animals. The subject is illustrated by drawings.

Class I. Two hours. Systematic botany during the winter term, and zoology and mineralogy during the winter.

Geography.

Class III. Two hours. Knowledge of home. Berlin and its environs. Regency of Potsdam. Province of Brandenburgh. Necessary technical terms explained, as horizontal, vertical, &c.

Class II. Two hours. Geography of Prussia and Germany.

Class I. Two hours. General geography, particularly Europe and America. Asia more generally. Africa and Australia very briefly.

History.

Class II. Two hours. View of universal history, biographical rather than chronological.

Class I. Two hours. First year universal history completed. Second year the history of Germany, and particularly of Prussia. The most important inventions and discoveries are noticed in connection with the history of these countries.

Reading.

Class VI. Seven hours. Reading by the phonic (lautir) method. Analysis of words in regard to division into syllables and sounds.

Class V. Seven hours. Mechanical reading continued, but with reference to the meaning of the words. The pupils are examined upon words, sentences, and paragraphs.

Class IV. Four hours. Explanatory reading continued. Accentuation. No piece is allowed to be read without its being understood.

Class III. Two hours. Rythmical reading begun. Interesting portions of the matter read, narrated by the pupils in their own words.

Class II. Two hours. Rythmical reading continued.

Class I. Two hours. Reading of some of the German classics. Analysis of the subject read.

WRITING.

Class VI. Five hours. Introductory exercises of drawing upon the slate. Copying the small letters from the blackboard. Writing on paper. Capital letters. Written exercises at home twice a week.
Class V. Five hours. Writing of German characters continued. Roman letters begun. Copying from a book at home, with special reference to orthography.
Class IV. Four hours. Writing in German and Roman characters continued. Two hours copying from copy-slips. Two hours writing from dictation.
Class III. Three hours. Exercises of Class IV. continued. Pupils who write well are allowed to write without lines. Writing without copies, according to progress.
Class II. Two hours. Exercises continued. Most of the pupils write without lines, or by directing points merely.
Class I. The written exercises in other departments are examined, to ascertain the character of the handwriting. No special lessons are given.

DRAWING.

Class IV. Two hours. Drawing straight lines in various directions and of various lengths. Making definite angles. Drawing triangles, squares, and other rectilinear figures.
Class III. Two hours. Drawing of circles and ovals.
Class II. Two hours. Drawing of bodies bounded by planes and straight lines in perspective. Drawing of curves.
Class I. Drawing from natural objects, from plaster casts, and models.

SINGING.

Class IV. Two hours suffice to learn fifteen or twenty songs, of one or two verses, by note, and some ten choral songs.
Class III. Two hours. Songs with two parts continued. Chorals with one voice.
Class II. Two hours. Songs with two or three voices continued.
Class I. Two hours. Songs and chorals with three or four parts.

Once during the morning there is an interval for recreation in the court-yard of the school, and the pupils are directed in their exercises of marching and counter-marching, and the like, by one of the teachers.

The course marked out in the foregoing programme, as far as it extends, seems to me well adapted to educate the moral and intellectual faculties, as well as the senses; to give mental vigor, while it furnishes information useful to the pupil in after life.

There are peculiarities in regard to the religious instruction, even as intended for Protestants, which may be remarked in the fifth and third classes, the object of which I do not understand. In other respects, when sectarian instruction may be given, as in this school, where all the pupils are of one denomination, the course appears to be good. The manner of communicating the instruction by conversation and lectures, renders it very effective. There are in all the classes, taken together, twenty-two hours per week devoted to religious instruction here, and eighteen in the other, but the programme does not show a gain in the amount of knowledge communicated.

The course in the mother tongue is fully explained in the programme, and is well adapted to produce fluency and accuracy of expression in conversation and writing. Both this and the foregoing course extend, as they should, through all the classes.

The Latin language is introduced with a view to preparation for a gymnasium, in the nomenclature of natural history, the business of the chemist and druggist, and perhaps, to use the language of an accomplished teacher in one of the higher town schools, "because such always has been the custom." I would give the preference to the course of this school over that of the other, considering the time of twenty-seven hours devoted to it more appropriate than of thirty, as in the other.

The French, besides, combining with the German and Latin to give the due proportion of intellectual culture from language, is introductory to the courses in the real schools, which are parallel with the gymnasia, and prepare for the polytechnic or other special schools, as the latter do for the university. It is practically useful, too, to the shopkeeper and tradesman of the continent of Europe, and was, probably, formerly more so than at present. The Latin language is begun in the fourth class, or at about eight years of age, and the French language in the third class, but neither occupy more than three hours a week, until a year afterward. These languages occupy forty-seven hours per week, during the entire period through which they are taught.

Nothing can be better than the foundation laid for arithmetic. The pupils are engaged a year in practical arithmetic before they are introduced to a knowledge of abstract numbers. Habits of thought are given by simple exercises in mental arithmetic. The eye is enlisted to aid the mind by computing with cubes, according to the method in the schools of Holland. Written arithmetic relieves the mental exertion, aids the memory, and trains the hand. The course is then carried on, combining mental and written arithmetic, and reaching algebra, which is also, in part, taught mentally.

The course of geometry begins with ideas of form, in connection with drawing, according to Pestalozzi's method, which it follows in general. It is thus a powerful means of stimulating the mind, and, though the time occupied is greater than if the subject were taught in the ordinary way, the results are much more satisfactory. If there is latent mathematical talent in a pupil, his powers of invention cannot fail to be drawn out by this method.

Natural history is not left to incidental instruction, to be derived from the reading-book, but is directly taught in the last two years. I had not the opportunity of judging of the fruits of this instruction in the seminary school itself, but the pupils of the seminary were pursuing the subject with zeal. In comparing this course with that of the other school, I think it preferable, except in the omission, at the beginning, of an account of the domestic animals. There will be, I doubt not, great improvements in teaching this branch at a future day. At present, the plan is hardly formed, and the collections for illustration, where they exist at all, are, in general, quite small. There is, besides, a tendency to make the course too strictly scientific.

The system of instruction in geography is begun in the third class, or at nine years of age, with a description of home. History, which in its elements is combined with geography, takes a separate place in the second class. The practice of giving biographical sketches instead of mere chronological details, cannot be too much commended. The pupil learns with interest the events of the lives of men who have made an impression upon the age in which they lived; these events form an outline which is easily fixed in the mind, and may subsequently be filled up in detail. Again, the discussions of inventions and discoveries in art or science afford relief from the descriptions of battles and revolutions, and serve to show the influence of genius exerted in civil life.

The phonic method of teaching to read, wants only the use of words having a meaning, as in Mr. Wood's system, to be nearly perfect. No reading is allowed, however, without understanding not only the words, but their connection, and the ideas conveyed by the sentences. The habit of thus giving paraphrases of subjects, leads to facility of expression, and by combining this with copying from good models, a correct style is formed. The course of reading of the highest class, includes selections from the German classics. Introductory exercises in drawing precede the instruction in writing; these might, I have no doubt, be much further extended with advantage.* A good handwriting is produced by the succession of exercises described in the programme. The course of drawing, which is commenced as a distinct branch in the fourth class, is intended to enable the pupil to sketch correctly, and with facility, such objects of furniture, machinery, &c., as he may have occasion to represent in his occupations in after life. The addition of two hours of drawing in the fifth class, would seem to me not to overburden the class with work, while it would add materially to their proficiency in this useful branch.

Singing is successfully taught, and by note. It is considered an indispensable branch of instruction, and all my convictions are in its favor, whether as a means of developing moral sentiment, or of physical education. Singing by ear might, however, very well begin in the lower classes, and for this purpose the number of hours of instruction per week might be increased from twenty-four to twenty-six in the lowest, and twenty-eight in the fifth class.

The time allotted to the different studies will appear better by the annexed table. In regard to the ages of the pupils, inserted in the heading of the columns, it is to be understood that they are those of intelligent and industrious boys entering at six years, and going regularly through the classes. The subjects of instruction are placed in the first column, the number of hours per week occupied by the several classes in the following ones, and the total number of hours devoted to each subject, while in the school, in the last column. In forming this total, the number of hours occupied by the four lower classes, the course in each of which is of one year, is reckoned once; and the number of hours of the two upper classes, each course occupying two years, is doubled.

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* As has been done for the elements of an English hand, by our countryman, Mr. Rembrandt Peale, in his admirable system of graphics. The forms of the German letters would require a different system.

Table of distribution of time in the Royal Seminary School of Berlin.

SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.	NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK.						
	First Class. 12 yrs. 13 yrs.	Second Class. 10 yrs. 11 yrs.	Third Class. 9 years of age.	Fourth Class. 8 years of age.	Fifth Class. 7 years of age.	Sixth Class. 6 years of age.	Totals.
Religious Instruction	2	2	3	3	4	4	22
German Language	3	3	4	4	4	3	27
Reading	2	2	3	5	8	7	31
Latin Language	6	4	4	3			27
French Language	4	4	4				20
Arithmetic	3	3	3	4	4*	5	28
Geometry	2	2	2				10
Natural History	2	2					8
Geography	2	2	2				10
History	2	2					8
Writing		2	3	3	4	5	19
Drawing	2	2	2	2			12
Singing	2	2	2	2			12
	32	32	32	26	24	24	

From this table it appears that language occupies one hundred and five hours, estimating the time devoted to reading with that for German, Latin, and French, science sixty-four hours, and the mechanical branches, including writing, drawing, and singing, forty-three. It would be erroneous, however, to suppose that the results are in these proportions. The least consideration will show that the progress in different branches in the same school cannot be estimated by the time devoted to them; the intrinsic difficulties of acquisition, the different periods of the course at which they are introduced, and various other causes, prevent comparisons of this sort. Not only so, but the time occupied in the same subjects in different schools, which might be thought to afford an accurate test of comparative progress in them, can not, in reality, be employed for this purpose, without at the same time carefully studying the programmes, to ascertain how the time is applied in each class, and the manner in which it is distributed among the several classes. The two higher city schools just described, afford conclusive evidence of this fact. There can be no doubt, I think, that the Dorothean school is the stronger in language, and the seminary school in science. Such is the general reputation of the two, and such is the tone which the director of each would be likely to give to the school under his charge. The impression which I derived from visiting the two establishments was to the same effect. The number of hours per week devoted to language in all the classes of the two schools is, however, ninety-eight for the first, and one hundred and five for the second, and to science, eighty-two for the former and sixty-four for the latter; leading, in both cases, to the reverse of the conclusion just stated. If differences in the arrangement of studies, in the power of the teachers, in the methods and implements of instruction, and even in the pupils themselves, may lead to such results, small differences in the proportion of time allotted to different branches should not, without carefully checking their results by other comparisons, be assumed to indicate corresponding differences in the value of the courses.

In following the course of studies of these two schools, it will be seen that those of the lowest class, in each, are almost identical. In the next, the seminary school has greatly the advantage in the compactness of arrangement, by which the attention of the pupil is confined to fewer subjects. No less than ten branches are introduced into the programme of this class in the Dorothean school, while there are but five in the seminary school. The scientific branches, except those which run through all the years, are introduced later in the latter school, which is in accordance with the principle of concentrating the attention on a few subjects, where it is possible. It appears to me that, in general, it is not proper to introduce these branches early, except as matters of incidental instruction. The separation of the programmes of the two schools, produced as just stated, renders it difficult briefly to compare the courses of the same class in each. A general comparison of the subjects shows that the German language is taught according to the same plan in each, and that the highest class attains the same level in each, as far as the grammar is concerned; much more attention, however, is paid in the seminary school to the reading courses, as well for the acquisition of reading as an art, and to cultivate a taste for it, as for the incidental knowledge to be communicated. Nearly one fourth of the pupil's time, in the school just named, is devoted to the vernacular. The Latin is begun in the same class in both schools, but the course in the Dorothean school at once takes the lead of the other, and keeps it throughout. The French begins in the fifth class in one school, and in the third in the other; and, though the programmes terminate at about the same point, there is a greater proficiency made in the Dorothean school. One object, if not the principal one, of learning this language being to speak it, the early commencement is an advantage. In a general comparison of progress in language, the Dorothean school, as already stated, ranks higher than the other.

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* This includes preparatory geometrical exercises.

The courses of arithmetic are different, but terminate at the same level; I have already mentioned my preference for the course of the seminary. Geometry is begun in the fifth class in the Dorothean, and in the fourth in the seminary school; the courses go on together for three classes, and extend further in the latter institution. The differences in the courses of natural history have already been the subject of remark. The course of geography is essentially the same, differing only in the age of the pupil at beginning. History is begun in the fourth class of the Dorothean, and in the second in the seminary school; it is more systematic in the former, and assumes more the form of biography in the latter; the range of the two courses does not differ essentially. Taking these branches, classed as scientific, together, the superiority is with the seminary school, and thus, in both this and the former case, the judgment which would have been pronounced by referring to the numbers merely, is reversed.

SEMINARY SCHOOL AT WEISSENFELS.

The Dorothean and Seminary school are described by Dr. Bache as characteristic specimens of the higher burgher school of Prussia. In the same connection he introduces the two following schools, the Seminary school at Weissenfels as representing, not a burgher school as it is denominated, but as covering the ground of a well organized elementary school for a village, and the higher burgher school of Potsdam, as carrying elementary instruction into the domain of secondary education.

This is a higher elementary, or lower burgher school, attached to the seminary for teachers at Weissenfels, and is under the charge of the director of the seminary. The school is intended not only for the benefit of the citizens of Weissenfels, but also as a model school, in which the pupils of the seminary may reduce to practice, under the eye of their teachers, the lessons of theory in the art of teaching, which forms an important part of the course of the seminary.

The school has four hundred pupils, male and female. They are divided into five classes, in the three lower of which the two sexes receive instruction in common, being separated in the highest. Each class averages thus eighty under the charge of one master, who is, however, assisted by the pupils of the seminary.

The following table shows the subjects of instruction, and the amount of time devoted to each. The whole course usually lasts seven years, when the pupil enters at the age of six or seven.

TABLE OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF TIME IN THE SEMINARY SCHOOL AT WEISSENFELS.

	NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK.				
SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.	Boys' Class.	First Class.	Second Class.	Third Class.	Total.*
Religious Instruction,	6	5	4	4	34
German Language,	4	3	3	1	21
Reading,	2	4		3†	25
Inductive Exercises,				1	1
Arithmetic,	4	4	4	4	28
Geometry,	3				6
Geography, History, Natural History, &c.,	3	2	3	1	17
Writing,	3	4	4	8‡	30
Drawing,	2	2	1	1	11
Singing,	3	2	2	3	17
Total,	30	26	26	26	

The *religious instruction* consists in the narration of Bible stories, and in pointing out the appropriate moral; in Bible history in a more connected form; in learning Luther's catechism, and committing parts of the Bible to memory. The pupils are also expected to give an account of the Sunday's sermon. The study of *German* includes the grammar. There are exercises specially of orthography and syntax in the upper classes. Poetry is also committed to memory.

The elements or *reading and writing* are taught together according to Dr. Harnisch's method.§ In the upper classes, the reading lessons are intended not only to give fluency in the art of reading, but also incidental instruction in grammar and general knowledge.

Direct exercises of *induction* are in use only in the lowest class.

The instruction in *arithmetic*, extends through fractions; mental arithmetic preceding written through all the rules. That of *geometry*, consists merely of the elements of form, according to Pestalozzi.

Under *geography* and *history* are included both physical and political geography and biography. With the physical geography is interwoven an account of the productions of nature and art of different countries. In the summer, the pupils are made acquainted with the botany of the environs, and in winter receive lessons upon animals, &c.

Writing on paper is a matter of privilege attainable by those who improve sufficiently. The others write on slates. The first lessons in drawing are introductory to writing; afterwards it is made a separate branch.

The higher classes learn *music* by note, and sing twice a week in company with the pupils of the normal school. The violin is used in leading the class singing exercises.

The discipline and instruction are admirable. The teachers have little occasion to use punishment. The instruction is chiefly given *viva voce*, and the pupils in general appear interested in their studies. A book is kept for the record of delinquences, which is examined by one of the superior masters once a week, and notice taken of the faults recorded. The director examines it once a month, and admonishes those who need it. Corporal punishment is resorted to only in extreme cases.

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* This column is calculated on the supposition that the pupil remains in the school from six until thirteen years of age, passing through the lowest class in one year, and each of the others in two years.

† As the instruction in writing and reading is combined, I have placed half of the number of hours under each head.

‡ Of these eight hours, three are combined, reading and writing, and two copying.

§ See page 200.

The two schools first described, will be found to vary very considerably in their arrangements from this one, forming the opposite extreme as it were, of the class, but a connecting link will be supplied by the burgher school of Potsdam, which is intended to cover the ground occupied by both divisions.

HIGHER BURGHER SCHOOL OF POTSDAM.

This school differs from those already described in several particulars, exemplifying, in its arrangements, the division into lower and higher burgher schools, and carrying the courses of the latter decidedly into the domain of secondary instruction. Its principal objects are to prepare children of both sexes for occupations connected with, or corresponding to, the lower trades, and boys for the higher mechanical occupations, as builders, architects, &c., or for admission into the trade school connected with the government, mechanics', or trade institute at Berlin, and for the gymnasium. This school thus supplies instruction of different grades; first, elementary instruction of a higher kind; second, that usually given in the "real schools" of Prussia, and third, that necessary for entrance into the higher classes of a gymnasium, or grammar school. Hence its studies embrace many subjects and stages of progress which properly belong to secondary instruction, and even to a greater degree than other higher burgher schools.

The pupils pursue a course common to all in the three lower classes, or from about six to eleven or twelve years of age, when a separation takes place. Those who are to leave school at thirteen or fourteen, pass into the "middle burgher school class," in which the study of Latin and French is dropped, and the time is devoted to religious instruction, German, mathematics, geography and history, the elements of natural history, technology and physics, writing, drawing, and vocal music. Those pupils who are preparing for a higher class of a gymnasium, or who intend to pursue the entire course here, pass from the third class to the "second burgher school class." These arrangements appear to meet the wants of the citizens of Potsdam, for, in 1837, forty-two pupils passed from the third class to the middle burgher school class, and forty-one to the second class of the higher school.

Pupils preparing for the sixth class of a gymnasium leave this school in the "second elementary class," or at about nine or ten years of age, and those who aim at the third class of a gymnasium, usually pass from this at the close of the course of the second class in the higher school. The first, or upper class, thus contain only those pupils who intend to enter into active business life on leaving the school, or to enter a special school of arts and trades. On this account, the branches of science which are immediately applicable to such objects, are introduced into the course. This class consisted, in 1837, of ten pupils. The complete course is usually gone through at or before sixteen years of age, and entitles the pupil to claim one year of voluntary military service, instead of the three regular years, and qualifies him for appointment in the government bureaux.

The six boys' and three girls' classes have twelve ordinary teachers, besides one assistant, and two female teachers. Each of the lower classes has but one teacher, who attends to all the subjects as in the other schools already described. The total number of pupils was, in 1837, four hundred and fifty-six, of whom three hundred and twenty-three were boys.

The usual system of change of place in the classes is employed to excite emulation, and discipline is mainly conducted by means of a black-book in which a pupil's name is entered at the end of the week or month, when he has had a certain number of faults per week, or per month, marked against him by the teacher. Marks of merit are allowed to cancel those of demerit. The entry is communicated to the pupil's comrades, and also to his parents. As far as I have been able to judge of these and similar systems of discipline in day schools, I have not found any marked good effects from them. If a teacher is competent, he keeps up good discipline without them, and if he is not, they are of little or no service to him. In this remark I do not mean to include communications to parents, which are frequently of the greatest utility. The following plan, which apparently bears some analogy to this, but which owes its efficacy to a different principle, is in successful operation in Dr. Mayo's excellent boarding school at Cheam, in Surrey, England. When a pupil proves insensible to the admonitions of the teacher, and is frequently reported for offenses or negligence, he is required to show to the principal a written statement of character from each master after every hour. He is thus subjected to admonition or other punishment from the principal immediately after committing an offense. For this very strict supervision, one extending over a day or week is substituted when improvement manifests itself, or when the case does not require so great severity.

I propose now to give a statement of the courses of the burgher school at Potsdam, and of the time required for their completion, with remarks and comparisons with the schools already described.

The annexed plan of the distribution of time gives also a list of the subjects of instruction: it is arranged exactly like the similar ones already presented. The first two columns of figures on the left hand refer to the number of hours of study per week in the two classes of the higher school. The third contains those of the middle burgher school class, the pupils in which terminate their course here. The next three contain the hours of study of the elementary classes, which are common to the whole school.

TABLE OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF TIME OF THE HIGHER BURGHER SCHOOL OF POTSDAM.

SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.	First or Upper Burgher School Class. 14 and 15 years of age.	Second Burgher School Class. 12 and 13 years of age.	Middle Burgher School or Upper Class. 12 and 13 years of age.	First Elementary Class. 10 and 11 years of age.	Second Elementary Class. 8 and 9 years of age.	Third Elementary Class. 6 and 7 years of age.	Totals.‖
Religious Instruction,	2	2	2	3	3	2	24
German Language,	3	3	6	5*	5*	6†	44
Reading,			3	3	4	6	26
Latin,	6	6		4	4		40
French,	4	4	4	2	1		22
Arithmetic,	3	3	2	4	4	4	36
Geometry,	2	2	2	1‡	2§	2§	18
Natural History,		2	2	2	2	2	16
Geography,	2	2	2	2	1		14
History,	2	2	2	1			10
Technology,	2						4
Physics,	2	2	2				8
Chemistry,	4						8
Writing,	2	2	3	3	3	4	28
Drawing,	2	2	2	2			12
Singing,	2	2	2	2	2	2	20
	38	34	34	34	31	28	

Besides the branches taught in the burgher schools already described, we have in this one technology, physics, and chemistry, and the number of hours attached to them in the foregoing table shows that they are actually taught to a considerable extent. These subjects are introduced, and at the same time the amount of study in the languages is increased, requiring an undue degree of labor of the classes, and dividing their attention among too many subjects. Thirty-eight hours of attendance on school per week is certainly too much to require.

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* Includes orthography, 2 hours; grammar, 2 hours; exercises of style, 1 hour.

† Includes exercises of memory, 2 hours.

‡ Preparatory exercises.

§ Elements of form.

‖ The column of totals refers to the regular progression of five classes, and is obtained by doubling the numbers here given for the three elementary and two upper burgher school classes.

Latin is begun in the second elementary class, where the first rudiments of grammar are learned, and easy sentences translated. This course is continued in the next class. Those who intend to leave the school in the middle burgher school class, may be excused from attending the Latin lessons in the first.

The second class of the higher school read Cornelius Nepos, and the first Cæsar and Ovid. Their proficiency did not, however, seem to me to correspond at all with the number of hours devoted to this branch, viz., forty. The object of this instruction, for those who do not go to the gymnasium, is stated to be to enable them to pursue the science necessary to their callings, without embarrassment from the terms. I am of opinion that, in such a case, the system pursued in Mr. Wood's school, applied to learning the etymology of compound Latin words, and of the German words derived from the Latin, would answer the end better, with a less consumption of time; and if Latin is to be retained, the number of hours devoted to it in the Dorothean school, (thirty) or in the seminary school, (twenty-seven) seem much better suited to the object in view. I am induced to what may seem a tedious discussion of these programmes, because they afford different examples of primary instruction, the grade with which our college must begin, and we can not examine too carefully the subjects which should compose it, nor draw too largely upon experience in the details of arrangement.

French. This course does not differ materially from those already given. Telemachus is used as a text-book. The time appropriated to the language appears sufficient, without being burthensome. Both the Latin and French being commenced in the second elementary class, which contains pupils who intend to leave school at the end of the "middle burgher school class year," it may be supposed that this time is thrown away, as very little proficiency can be made in so short a period: the force of this objection is, however, somewhat diminished by the fact, that the arrangement gives an opportunity for the development of a disposition for language which may warrant a change in the destination of the pupil.

In *arithmetic*, the lowest class is employed mainly in the mental exercises. After they have learned to make figures, they prepare written examples at home. In the next class, written arithmetic is combined with mental. The four ground rules are learned with abstract and concrete numbers. Preparatory exercises in fractions are taught. The first elementary class proceed as far as to include fractions, and a part of the class study proportions. The middle burgher school class pass on to decimal fractions and the square and cube root. The second burgher school class have their attention in these same parts of arithmetic directed to the technical applications, and besides, begin algebra, and proceed as far as simple equations. The first burgher school class extend their course of algebra through equations of the second and third degrees, progressions, and logarithms. Mercantile arithmetic also forms part of their course. These latter subjects, however, can in nowise be considered as belonging to primary instruction.

Geometry. Preparatory exercises of form, after the method of Pestalozzi, are taught in the elementary classes, and the higher ones proceed through the elements of geometry, and include mensuration and plane trigonometry. The head master has arranged, for the benefit of his pupils, a course containing the most important elements, and teaches also by lectures, which the pupils are required to write out. The time allotted to this subject is nearly double that of the seminary school, and I saw some reason to doubt the propriety of beginning the elementary exercises so early.

Knowledge of nature and art. The introduction to this subject, taught in the lowest two classes, is drawn from natural history, physical geography, and physics, and is made the means of inductive exercise. The recitations and conversation lectures which I heard, evidently interested the pupils, while they cultivated habits of reflection and observation. They are parallel with the lessons on objects of the English schools, being, however, more extended. The more systematic course of natural history of the higher classes, is like that of the seminary school. In summer the pupils make occasional excursions into the country, for practical exercise in this branch, under charge of a teacher; these excursions, if rightly improved, may be made also the means of cultivating proper relations between the pupil and teacher, but they are liable to abuse, and should be carefully attended to, in order to prevent such results. This school possesses a good collection of plates of natural history,* and has the use of the museum of the trade school, which is under its roof.

The course of *technology*, intended to give a knowledge of the principal arts and their processes, lies open to the objection already urged, on the score of overburthening the pupils with work. Such knowledge, as well as that of physics and chemistry, would be of service in after-life, but I do not see the possibility of teaching it, except in a mere outline, in a short course, and the time allotted appears to contemplate something more.

Geography. This course is begun with physical geography. The natural and artificial divisions of the world follow. Then the physical and political geography of Europe is taken up. The course of the upper or middle burgher school class terminates with that of Germany, and especially of the Mark of Brandenburgh, and with a review of the whole. The second burgher school class has the same course with the middle class. The first takes up mathematical geography, and reviews physical geography more minutely, adding a knowledge of the climate, productions, commerce, manufactures, &c., of the countries studied. Maps are drawn, as an exercise, at home. This geographical course, which attaches every other part of the information to physical geography, appeared to me next in its success to the inductive plan already described. It is much facilitated by the use of raised maps, on which the natural features of the country strike the eye more forcible than on a common map, where, if the physical details are given, the names and positions of the places, the boundaries, &c., are obscured by them.

The course of *history*, in the lower classes, is like that in the other schools. In the middle class the subject is reviewed, and the history of Germany, and especially that of Prussia, and of the Mark of Brandenburgh is studied. The second higher burgher school class is taught an outline of ancient history, of that of the middle ages, and of later times, and then proceeds to the history of Germany and of Brandenburgh. In the first class, the history of Germany, and of modern Europe in general, is continued.

In the *mechanical branches*, the distribution of time agrees with that in the other schools, except in the number of hours allotted to writing, which is here twenty-eight, and in the Dorothean school but sixteen. *Vocal music* is taught by ear in the lower classes, and by note in the upper.

Physical education. There is an interval of a quarter of an hour in the middle of the morning, during which the pupils are free to take exercise, but there is no regular gymnastic or other exercise under the superintendence of the teachers.

It is obvious from what has been presented, that the elementary instruction requires raising to a higher level than at present, namely, to that of which an example has been given in the higher elementary school of Weissenfels. That then all pupils whose circumstances permit them to devote a longer time to education should pass to other schools, of a kind depending upon their destination in after-life, as determined by the circumstances of their parents and their own talents. The tone of these higher schools would, it appears, require to be varied according to the wants of the population among which they are placed, whether that of the country, of small towns, or of cities. In the cities, it has been seen that one class of burgher schools required is provided, and others will be described belonging more properly to a higher grade of instruction, upon the province of which, however, these latter decidedly trench. An example of a systematic arrangement appropriate to a city is afforded by the burgher school of Leipsic, presently to be described. Such a plan would, however, be inappropriate to a small town, where, of necessity, several schools must be united in one. In this case, it would require care to avoid the union of incompatible classes of pupils, causing mutual losses of time, and giving rise to defective habits of study. The same teachers should give instruction in the different departments of the school, in the same or kindred subjects, rather than to unite different classes. The pupil preparing for the gymnasium should not be called upon to study the natural sciences or mathematics which he will pursue there, and of which he does not feel the want for admission, nor the student who is to enter an architectural, commercial, or trade school, the classics which the gymnasial student requires for his admission.

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* By Fisher of Breslaw.

The subjects and methods of instruction thus far described, belong avowedly and appropriately to the department of primary schools. Those, which follow, aim first, to prepare pupils for the university, and subsequently for the professions of law, medicine, theology, or public office; and second, to engage in commerce, trade, architecture, engineering, and other kinds of practical business. The schools, where these subjects are taught, belong to the departments of secondary and special instruction. They are introduced here as examples of courses of study which should be provided in all our large cities, in independent schools, or as part of our plan of public high schools. We introduce an account of the Frederick William Gymnasium, with the following summary of the system of secondary instruction in Prussia by Dr. Bache, in his report.

The immediate authority superintending secondary instruction is the school board (schul-collegium) of the province in which the gymnasium is situated. This school board is a branch of the provincial consistory, of which the chief magistrate of the province, the higher president (ober-president.) is the head. One of the councillors of the ministry of puplic instruction, at Berlin, is specially charged with the concerns of all the gymnasia, and is the channel through which the provincial authorities communicate with the ministry. The school board consists of the president and vice president of the provincial government, and of two school councillors, and holds its meetings in the chief town of the province. They regulate the details of instruction and discipline in the gymnasia, correspond with the directors, appoint the teachers, except the director, who is appointed by the minister, make visits of inspection, and attend the examinations, especially those for passing to the university, and authorize the books to be used in the school and placed in the library. The inspection of religious instruction belongs to the ecclesiastical functionaries of the Protestant and Catholic churches severally. The royal gymnasia are supported from the funds of the state and the payments of their pupils, and their receipts and expenditures, are under the charge of a special officer, or of the director. The funds of those which are otherwise endowed, are usually under the direction of a committee, or of one of the officers. In 1850, there were 117 gymnasia with 1,664 teachers and 29,474 pupils, and more than one hundred real schools and other schools of this grade, for special instruction for particular departments of practical life.

The following abstract of a series of regulations adopted by the central board in 1837, will give a good idea of the general organization of secondary instruction.

The regulations embrace the following heads: 1. Admission of pupils. 2. Subjects of instruction. 3. Distribution of teachers and of the subjects of the lessons. 4. The number of hours of teaching. 5. Studies out of school hours. 6. Duration of the courses. 7. Remarks on the regulations for the examinations. 8. Remarks on the supposed defects of teachers, methods of instruction, &c. 9. Physical education. 10. Religious instruction. The following is an abstract of the remarks upon these subjects.

1. *Admission.* Experience has fully proved that the admission of pupils at a very early age into the gymnasia is prejudicial to the individuals themselves, as well as to the institutions. Neither the mental nor physical development, nor the attainment, at an early age, are adequate to the pursuit of the courses appropriate to a gymnasium, and hence the admission of very young pupils induces an improper lower-

ing of the standard of instruction in these establishments. The ministry, therefore, recommends that pupils be not admitted at an earlier age than ten years, and that the following qualifications be required: 1. Facility in logical and rhythmical reading, both in German and Roman text, and the rudiments of grammar and orthographic writing. 2. Writing from dictation. 3. Practice in the four ground rules of arithmetic, with abstract numbers, and first principles of fractions. 4. Elements of geography, particularly that of Europe. 5. Stories of the Old Testament, and life of Christ. 6. Elementary notions of drawing and of form.

Two errors on the part of parents are pointed out by the ministry, the influence of whose advice is directed against them: The first is, that children of feeble bodily constitutions should be devoted to literary pursuits; the second, that young men who have passed the appropriate age for instruction may be advantageously pushed into one of the learned professions, even if they are required to teach in order to obtain the needful education.

2. *Subjects of instruction.* As the ground work of higher instruction, the following subjects are recommended to be pursued in the gymnasia: 1. Religious instruction. 2. German. 3. Latin. 4. Greek. 5. Mathematics. 6. Physics. 7. Natural history. 8. Geography. 9. History. 10. Writing. 11. Drawing. 12. Vocal music. Experience has shown that these subjects are particularly calculated to develop the intellectual powers, and to give a systematic and practical preparation for the higher studies. The same can not be said of the Hebrew, the study of which is specially appropriate only to theologians. A knowledge of the French is not considered essential to the true purpose of a gymnasium. This language has been made a subject of public instruction on account of its usefulness in after-life, and not of its correctness or purity. With the exception of these two languages, the subjects enumerated above have always been taught in the gymnasia, though in variable proportions. No one of them could, with propriety, be omitted, and propositions to that effect will receive no countenance. The ministry does not fear that injury will result to the mental or physical development of the pupils, by pursuing all the branches in their appropriate degree, but teachers are cautioned against attempts to push one subject at the expense of another; being reminded that the course should be viewed as a whole, which must suffer by the unequal forcing of its parts. The directors of gymnasia are especially required to attend to this point, and the school boards are requested to relieve them from teaching, as far as may be necessary to the inspection thus required.

If the subjects of instruction, as here laid down, be compared with those of the secondary schools of England, it will be found that what is there regarded as innovation, has been successfully used as the course of grammar school instruction in Germany. That the efficiency of the course is confirmed by long experience, and that the subjects are recommended, anew, as the future course of those institutions. While ancient letters are successfully cultivated, other subjects are not neglected, but their equal importance with the former is clearly asserted, and as clearly proved by results. While the Germans have lost nothing in general literary culture by this system, they have gained much in other departments of knowledge.

The scholastic year is divided into two terms, or half years, at the close of each of which there is an examination. At the end of the second half year, the examinations for passing from one class to another are held. The usual vacations are two weeks at Easter, one at Whitsuntide, three in August, one at Michaelmas, and two at Christmas.

3. *Distribution of the teachers and of the subjects of instruction.* There are, in general, six classes in a gymnasium, of which the lowest is called sixth, and the highest first. To produce a harmony in the methods and degree of instruction, notwithstanding the variety of subjects taught, it has, for some time, been the custom in the Prussian gymnasia to assign several subjects of instruction to the same teacher, in the same class. This arrangement is confirmed in the document under discussion. It is recommended that similar subjects of instruction be classed together, to constitute a department, as, for example, German and Latin; history, geography, and natural history; and mathematics, and physics. That then the instruction of one or more classes, in one department, be consigned to one teacher; as the instruction of the lower classes in German and Latin; of the two middle classes in Latin, Greek, and French; of the two higher in German, Greek, and French; of the lower and middle classes in history and geography; of the higher classes in mathematics, physics, and mental philosophy. The number of teachers would thus be, in general, in a gymnasium of six classes, two for the two lower classes, three for the two middle, and four for the two higher classes.

The ministry further recommend that kindred subjects be taught in different parts of the same term, rather than on different days of the same week, as geography at the beginning of a term, and history at the close; a Latin and Greek prose author at the beginning of a term, and a poetical author at the close of the term, &c.

With a view to induce teachers to take upon themselves the arduous duties of a department, or class teacher, as just explained, the school board are recommended to promote teachers according to merit, not confining their promotion to the institution in which they may be, but taking the entire range of the province. A promise is made by the ministry to pay strict attention to this rule, in promoting to vacant situations of directors of gymnasia. The class teachers are to have the title of "upper teachers," (ober-lehrer,) the others being designated simply as "teachers."

It is obvious that very varied attainments are thus required of the regular, or class teachers, and that the difficulty of finding persons competent to discharge these duties, increases very much as the grade of instruction becomes more elevated. Hence the practice in the gymnasia varies very materially from this recommendation. It is so desirable, in the higher classes, that the teacher should devote much time to his own improvement in the knowledge of his branch of instruction, and that he should have a strong taste for its cultivation, that in general it is found advisable to confine his attention to a single subject, or to subjects much nearer akin than those which are classed together in the enumeration just made. This is particularly the case in the mathematics, beyond the mere elements, the physics and physical geography, the natural history, the less elementary parts of drawing, and vocal music. In the case of the French language, a special teacher, from the very beginning, is absolutely necessary, if the instruction in it is to be any thing more than a matter of form.

4. *Number of hours of recitation.* This is fixed at thirty-two per week; a number which experience has shown may with propriety be exacted of students, and which is requisite to complete the course of studies. In the French colleges there are but twenty-four hours of regular obligatory instruction per week. This difference alone would go far to explain the reason for the fact, that in the gymnasia, the written course of studies is closely followed in all its departments, while in the royal colleges it is but partially carried out. That in the former, all branches

are deemed worthy of attention, while in the latter, in practice, some are treated as if they were not appropriate parts of a regular course of studies. The Prussian minister asserts, very justly, that four hours every morning, and two hours in the afternoon, four times a week, may be passed in a well ventilated school room, without injury to health. The condition in regard to ventilation is, however, essential to the truth of the proposition; it is easily realized in the gymnasia, on account of the small number constituting each class. I found, in fact, generally, but little objection to the arrangements, in this respect, in these institutions.

I had reason to remark, in the city gymnasia of Prussia, in general, that the appearance of the upper classes betoken a higher state of health than that of the lower, which would not have been the case had they been over worked. The mental labor, on the part of the student, indicated by thirty-two hours per week spent in school, is less than it would be from the same time in an English grammar school, or in one of our own establishments of the same grade, from the mode of teaching. Much of the instruction is communicated by conversation and by lecture, during the school hours, which are thus devoted to acquiring knowledge as well as to reciting what has been learned by study at other times. The school boards are requested not to allow this time of thirty-two hours per week to be exceeded, and a general plan for the distribution of time, which will be given below, is appended to the instructions. This plan, however, may be modified according to the circumstances of the institution to which it is to be adapted, preserving, however, the number of hours devoted to religious instruction, to the languages and mathematics, as cardinal points in the system. It is deemed unnecessary to begin the French earlier than in the third class, which would postpone it as late as thirteen years of age. Natural history may be substituted for physics in the second class, and a general

PLAN OF STUDIES ARRANGED FOR THE GYMNASIA OF PRUSSIA BY THE MINISTRY OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, OCTOBER 24TH, 1837.

SUBJECTS OF STUDY, &c.	NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK.						
	Prima, or highest class.	Secunda.	Tertia.	Quarta.	Quinta.	Sexta.	Total.
Latin,	8	10	10	10	10	10	58
Greek,	6	6	6	6			24
German,	2	2	2	2	4	4	16
French,	2	2	2				6
Religious Instruction,	2	2	2	2	2	2	12
Mathematics,	4	4	3	3			14
Arithmetic and Elements of Form,					4	4	8
Physics,	2	1					3
Philosophy,	2						2
History and Geography,	2	3	3	2	3	3	16
Natural History,			2	2	2	2	8
Drawing,				2	2	2	6
Writing,				1	3	3	7
Vocal Music,			2[1]	2	2	2	8
	30	30	32	32	32	32	
Hebrew for the future Theologians,	2	2					

at branch, as studied in the previous years, is recommended, id vocal music are intended to be carried so far as that the ollow them to advantage if his tastes incline that way.

istry recommends that where several hours per week are a subject, more than one each day should be given to it, so itrate the attention upon a few branches every day.

out of school hours. On this subject the ministry remarks, : is highly important that the pupil should have preparation luiring the exercise of his own resources, it is not less so that of private study should not be carried to an injurious extent. tions, therefore, provide that at the beginning of each term be a conference of the teachers, to determine the due amount k in the different classes, in detail. Every teacher should , in which the exercises actually given are accurately noted, director may see at any time how far the decisions of the ave been conformed to. The written exercises of the pupils ularly corrected by the teachers. and at least once a month eview the exercise books, to ascertain the progress and the the exercises. German and Latin compositions are to be ttended to. Themes on subjects with which the pupils are ted, so that they must labor both for the matter and lan- forbidden. The teacher should not only select subjects ne pupils for these exercises, but should also explain the vhich he expects them to be treated.

ion of the courses. The six classes should, according to rule, rough in nine years: the three lower, each, in one year, and gher, each, in two years; thus a pupil entering at ten would ymnasium at nineteen. The provincial school board may he period of the year for the examinations for passing from s. In the gymnasia, where the classes are subdivided on numbers, and the pupils pass from one section to another of six months, the arrangement is permitted to be con-

excellence in a few departments is not to warrant the pro- ne pupil to a higher class; he must be reasonably proficient

ination for the university. The regulations of 1834, on this confirmed by the present; certain erroneous constructions, been put upon the former, being pointed out. The first of supposition that the amount which the pupils are able to ing the time fixed for examination, determines the character tificate of capacity, while, on the contrary, this is given for knowledge of the subjects which they show. The fact that ation requires a previous attendance of two years in the first sidered as indicating positively that the course of that class intended to drill for the examination. The next refers to the ction in regard to the extent of examination on the different ich being intended as a general guide to the examiners, has nstrued so far as to be supposed to furnish teachers who are upils the means of imparting the least amount of knowledge vith their passing. The ministry considers that the qualifi- the final examination have stood the test of experience, hav- ind not too high, and calculated to promote sound instruction sty preparation. As, however, the excitement of these ex- appears to act injuriously on certain temperaments, the min- rizes the examining commissions to reduce the viva voce examination, in cases where they see cause to do so. The ministry declines omitting the examination on the course of religious instruction.

8. *Supposed defects of teachers, &c.* The ministry states, as the remark of many intelligent persons, that while so much progress has been made within the last twenty years in the elementary schools, many of the teachers of the gymnasia, neglecting the progress of the science of teaching, still follow the old routine methods; that the teachers overrate the importance of their special branches, and thus destroy the harmony of the system; that they imitate the style of lecturing of the university professors, which renders their explanations ill adapted to the age and state of progress of their pupils, and when, in consequence, their pupils get on slowly, instead of seeing in this fact the necessity for a change of method, they charge the fault upon the classes. The ministry remarks that it has not the means of judging personally whether such criticisms are well founded or not, but that the provincial school boards, to whom they have been submitted, are of opinion that, in general, they are too severe. They are made public, however, that the teachers of the gymnasia may reflect upon them.

No specific method of instruction, it is remarked, applicable to all varieties of age, preparation, and subjects of study, can be pointed out. Every teacher should observe, closely, the results of his instruction, and adopt freely the advice or example of teachers of known ability in their art. The directors of gymnasia are especially enjoined to visit the classes of their teachers frequently, and to make such suggestions as may seem to be required; they are further expected to set an example themselves of thorough teaching. The ministry considers that the system of class teachers, already described, facilitates the course of observation recommended, by giving the teacher a thorough acquaintance with all the members of his class. The importance of making the science of teaching one of observation is thus directly inculcated.

The probation of a year, required by the decree of September 26th, 1836, before the admission of a teacher to full standing, being intended to prevent the admission of incompetent teachers, the provincial school boards are enjoined to give effect to the provision, by promoting to the situations of ordinary or class teachers (ordinarii,) those only who have shown decided capability in their art. The ministry promises to give such an extension to the normal schools for teachers of gymnasia, as shall insure an adequate supply from them.

The provincial boards are enjoined to see that suitable books are provided for the gymnasia, and to attend to regulating the details of the programmes of the different classes. This authority obviously leaves the most essential points of instruction within their power.

9. *Physical education.* On this subject, the document from the ministry states that representations have been made from many of the directors and teachers of gymnasia, that physical education should be introduced as an essential part of their systems. The necessity for due physical development is admitted; but it is argued, that in the gymnasia which receive day scholars alone, an attention to it forms no part of the duty of the teacher, who is merely bound to furnish the requisite time for recreation, and to take care that the health of the pupils is not injured during the hours of recitation by causes depending upon the school. In the boarding gymnasia the case is admitted to be different. A continuance of gymnastic exercises in these establishments, when they have been tried and found beneficial, is allowed, but the compulsory attendance of day scholars upon them is not permitted. When regular gymnastic exercises are introduced, it is made the duty of the

d to see that a proper teacher is provided, and the exercises nducted under charge of the director of the institution.

that the idea of leaving the physical education of children their parents, especially in the cities and towns where the sia are usually established, seems to me very unwise; par- in Prussia, where all else is regulated, and where the youth glad to engage in gymnastic exercises, when the means are them.

rious education. It is enjoined that this contain the whole Christian faith, and that the instruction be given according plan.

incial authorities are charged with the communication of the egulations to the directors and teachers of the gymnasia, and perintendence of their execution.

structor manages his class in his own way, subject to the the director, and hence, of course, there is considerable arsh punishments, and personal violence, are discounte- ll the classes. Appeals to the moral sentiments and feelings, tions, are the favorite methods of discipline. I nowhere saw e in better condition than in these schools, the youth of the especially, going through their duties without the necessity an occasional admonition, and exhibiting the decorum of gen- hatever situation I met them. The director is the supreme a teacher fails in being able to produce proper conduct on a pupil, and he may dismiss from the institution. This, how- ly necessary.

ns of securing attention to study do not differ from those in tries, and already often alluded to. The system of excite- ried to a far less extent, in general, than in the French col- ulation is encouraged, but not stimulated into ambition. In asses, the pupils change places during the daily recitations; hey are arranged by monthly trials of composition, and at ations; and in the higher classes, from the same composi- om the results of their marks for daily recitation, and at the examinations. Prizes are not given as a general rule, re are some special ones in certain gymnasia.

ine of the system of the gymnasia, as regulated by the cen- ity, requires, to complete it, some account of the regulations examination prior to passing to the university (abiturienten- nd of the means of providing teachers. The regulations for amination occupy fifty sections, and enter into very minute vill be sufficient for the present purpose to present an abstract important of them under the following heads: 1. The per- xamined, the object, place, and time of the examination. 2. rities by whom, and under whose direction, the examination ducted. 3. The character and subjects of the examination. l of certificate obtained on passing the examination satisfac- he privileges attached to it.

ersons to be examined, &c. Those who intend to embrace rofessions requiring a course of three or four years at a uni- st, before matriculating at the university, pass the ordeal of ation; the object being to ascertain whether the candidate himself duly master of the subjects required for successful pon his university career. The examination must be made gymnasium, and in some part of the last two months of the ear.

dmitted to the examination, a pupil of a gymnasium must have been in its first class at least three terms of half a year each, except in cases where pupils have especially distinguished themselves during a year in this class. Three months' notice of their intention to stand this examination is to be given by the pupils to the director of the gymnasium, who advises with them on their intention, but has no right to prevent any pupil of three terms' standing in the first class from coming forward.

Persons who are educated in private undergo this same examination in any gymnasium which their parents may select. They are required to present beforehand the certificate of their masters as to moral conduct and proficiency, and are examined at a different time from the regular students.

2. *By whom the examination is conducted.* There is a committee for each gymnasium, consisting of the director, the masters who have charge of the higher classes, a member of the ecclesiastical authority of the place, and a member of the provincial consistory. This latter member presides, and his appointment must be approved by the ministry of public instruction. The ecclesiastical member must be approved by the provincial consistory. Besides these, there is a royal commission appointed by the ministry, and consisting of professors of the university and others, who are present as inspectors at the examination. The teachers of the gymnasium and the local authorities of the school are also present at the oral examinations.

3. *Character and subjects of examination.* The examinations are of two kinds, written and oral. The subjects are, the German, Latin, Greek, and French languages,* for students in general, and in addition, the Hebrew for those who intend to study theology. Religion, history, and geography, mathematics, physics, natural history, and the elements of mental philosophy. The subjects of the written examination are chosen by the royal commissary present, from a list furnished by the director of the gymnasium. These subjects must be such as have never been treated specially in the class-room, but not yet beyond the sphere of instruction of the pupils. All the candidates receive the same subjects for composition, which are given out at the beginning of the examination. The candidates are assembled in one of the halls of the gymnasium, and remain there during the period allotted for their exercises under the charge of one or other of the examining teachers, who relieve each other. The only books allowed them are dictionaries and mathematical tables. The written exercises consist, first, in a German prose composition, the object of which is to discern the degree of intellectual development, and the style of composition of the candidate. Second: of a Latin extempore† and a Latin composition on some subject which has been treated in the course, the special reference in this exercise being to the correctness of the style. Third: a translation from a Greek author, which has not been read in the course, and from Latin into Greek. Fourth: a translation from the German into the French. Fifth: the solution of two questions in geometry, and of two in analysis, taken from the courses in those subjects. Candidates who desire it, may be examined further than is required for passing.

Those who intend to study theology or philology, translate a portion of one of the historical books of the Old Testament, or a psalm, into Latin, adding a grammatical analysis. The time allowed for the several written exercises is as follows: For the German, five hours; Latin composition, five hours; Latin extempore, one hour; Greek translation,

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* In the grand duchy of Posen, the Polish language is also one of the subjects.

† An exercise in which the master speaks in German to the pupil, who must render the German into Latin, in writing.

urs; translation from Latin into Greek, two hours; French
on, four hours; mathematical exercises, five hours; Hebrew
, when required, two hours. Four days are allowed for the
ion in these subjects, and they must not immediately follow
er. The viva voce examination is conducted by the masters
given instruction in the first class on the subjects of examina-
ss the royal commissary directs otherwise. The subjects are,
general grammar and prosody of the German language, the
chs of national history and literature, and the national classics.
the translation and analysis of extracts from Cicero, Sallust,
gil, and Horace; the ability of the candidates to render the
ith judgment and taste being put to the test, as well as their
ical and archeological acquirements; parts of the examination
ucted in the Latin language. Third: the translation and
f Greek prose and of portions of Homer, with questions upon
ammar, Grecian history, arts, and mythology. Fourth: trans-
om the French classics, during which an opportunity is given
pil to show how far he can speak the language. Fifth: ques-
n the Christian doctrines, dogmas and morals, the principal
the history of the Christian church, and the Bible. Sixth:
, the elements of algebra and geometry, the binomial theo-
le and quadratic equations, logarithms and plane trigonome-
enth: in history and geography, on ancient history, especially
reece and Rome, and modern history, especially that of the
n physical, mathematical, and political geography. Eighth:
l history, on the general classification of its subjects. Ninth:
ortions of physics as can be treated by elementrry mathe-
nd on the laws of heat, light, magnetism, and electricity.
n the elements of moral philosophy, psychology, and logic.
re theological student must, besides, translate and analyze a
one of the historical books of the Old Testament.

kind of certificate obtained, and the privileges attached to it.
examination is closed, the board already alluded to as con-
nd superintending it, deliberates upon the notes which have
en during its course, each member having a vote. Those
who are deemed to have passed a satisfactory examination,
certificate called a "certificate of maturity," (maturitäts-zeug-
others are remanded to their class, and may present them-
er an interval of six months, for another examination, unless
deemed entirely incompetent to continue a literary career.
y in all the subjects of examination is, in general, required to
andidate to a certificate, but exception is sometimes made in
hose who show great attainments in the languages or mathe-
nd in the case of students of a somewhat advanced age, the
ring of the different subjects upon the profession which they
embrace is considered. The daily records of the class-rooms
nted by the director of the gymnasium to the examiners, as
he character of the candidates in regard to progress and con-
e points being specially noted in the certificate. The certifi-
aturity contains, besides, the name and address of the pupil,
parent or guardian; the time during which he has been at
asium, and in its first class; the conduct of the pupil toward
s and masters, and his moral deportment in general; his char-
ndustry, and his acquirements, as shown at the examination,
the result in each branch, and adding a statement from the
f drawing and music of his proficiency in their respective de-
; the studies which he proposes to prosecute at the university,

and to commence which he leaves the gymnasium. These certificates are delivered in an assemblage of the students of the gymnasium with suitable remarks. The certificate of maturity is necessary to enable a youth to be matriculated in either of the faculties of theology, law, medicine, and philology, in one of the national universities, to be admitted to examination for an academic degree, to be appointed to office in state or church, or to obtain one of the royal bursaries at the universities. Special exception in regard to matriculation may be made by authority of the minister of public instruction. Students who have not passed a satisfactory examination, and whose parents demand it, are entitled to a certificate, stating the branches in which they are deficient; they may enter the university with this, and are registered accordingly. This registry enables them, if they subsequently obtain a certificate of maturity, and the special permission of the minister of public instruction, to have their matriculation dated from the time of inscription. Pupils who have passed through the third class of a gymnasium are entitled to claim one year of voluntary military service, provided they report themselves at a specified time during their twentieth year.

There are two kinds of schools devoted to the preparation of teachers for the gymnasia, called respectively philological and pedagogical seminaries, (philologische seminare, pädagogische seminare.) One of the first kind is attached to the universities of Berlin, Bonn, Breslaw, Halle, Königsberg, and Greifswalde, and one of the second is placed at Berlin, Stettin, Breslaw, Halle, Königsberg, and Münster. Besides these, there is a seminary for teachers of natural philosophy and the natural sciences, at Bonn.

FREDERICK WILLIAM GYMNASIUM OF BERLIN.

This institution dates from 1797, and was at first an appendage to the "real school" of Mr. Hecker. It is now a royal institution, and is independent of the real school, except so far that it has the same director, and that the preparatory classes are in the real school, in which, or in other equivalent schools, the pupils are taught until ten years of age. The qualifications for admission are those contained in the general account of the gymnasia. This gymnasium had, in 1837, four hundred and thirty-seven pupils, divided into six classes, and instructed by fourteen teachers and six assistants. The second and third classes are subdivided into two parts, called upper and lower, pursuing different courses, and both divisions of the third class are again subdivided into two others, for the convenience of instruction. The course in each class occupies a year, except in the first, which is of two years. Pupils who enter in the lowest class, and go regularly through the studies, will thus remain nine years in the gymnasium. The numbers of the several classes in 1837 were, in the first, fifty-four; in the upper second, thirty-two; lower second, forty-seven; upper third division, first, or A, thirty-six; second division, or B, thirty-six; lower third, division first, or A, thirty-eight; division second, or B, thirty-two; fourth class, fifty-five; fifth, fifty-seven; and sixth, fifty. Each division averages, therefore, nearly forty-four pupils, who are at one time under the charge of one teacher. One hundred and eight were admitted during the year, and the same number left the gymnasium; of these, twenty-one received the certificate of maturity to pass to the university, viz., ten who intend to study law, three medicine, five theology, one theology and philology, one philosophy, and one political economy, finance, &c., (cameralistic.) Of these all but five were two years in the first class; out of this number two were two years and a half in the first class, and three more had been in the gymnasium less than two years, having entered it in the first class. The average age at leaving the gymnasium was nearly nineteen years, and the greatest and least, respectively, twenty-two and between sixteen and seventeen years. It appears, thus, that on the average, the pupils actually enter at ten, and remain nine years, as required by rule.

The subjects of instruction are Latin, Greek, German, French, religious instruc-

natics, (including arithmetic, algebra, and geometry,) natural philoso-
tural history, history, geography, writing, drawing, vocal music, and
theologians.

bers attached to the names of the different classes, in the following
show the number of hours of study per week in the regular branches
division of classes takes place. In like manner, the numbers attached
l subjects of study show how many hours are occupied per week in
ubjects by the several classes.

SIXTH CLASS, THIRTY HOURS.

ections of nouns, &c. Comparisons. Conjugation of the indicative moods of
some irregular verbs. Translation from Blume's elementary book. Exercises
Extemporalia. Ten hours.
tymology and syntax. Exercises in writing upon subjects previously narrated.
thography, reading, and declaiming. Four hours.
ymology, to include the auxiliary verbs, in Herrmann's grammar. Oral and
ses. Reading and translation. Exercises on the rules from the grammar.

ible history of the Old Testament. Committing to memory selected verses.

Delineation of the outlines of Europe, Africa, Asia, and America, from deter-
given. Divisions of the countries, with their principal cities, rivers, and moun-
ours.
The four ground rules, with denominate whole numbers. Their applications.

Elements of round and running hand. Dictation. Writing from copy slips.

Exercises in drawing lines. Two hours.

FIFTH CLASS, TWENTY-NINE HOURS.

nology. Use of the prepositions. The accusative before an infinitive, prac-
d in writing, and extempore, and in exercises. Translation from Blume's
ours.
arsing, reading, and declamation. Exercises on narrations. Four hours.
ymology, by oral and written exercises. Easier stories from Herrmann's
hours.
xplanation of the gospels, according to St. Matthew and St. Luke. Commit-
the principal facts. Two hours.
Review of the last year's course. Rivers and mountains of Europe, and
connection. Two hours.
Review of the preceding. Fractions. Four hours.
unning hand from copy slips. Two hours.
Drawing from bodies, terminated by planes and straight lines. Two hours.

FOURTH CLASS, TWENTY-EIGHT HOURS.

iew of etymology. The principal rules enforced by oral and written exercises
lia. Translation from Jacob's reader and Corn. Nepos. Ten hours.
ompositions on subjects previously read. Declamation. Reading from Ka-
Parsing. Three hours.
view of etymology. Irregular verbs. Reciprocal verbs. Anecdotes and nar-
errmann's grammar, and committing the principal to memory. Two hours.
ospel, according to St. Matthew, explained. Verses and psalms committed to
hours.
Political geography of Germany, and of the rest of Europe. Review of the
he other parts of the world. Three hours.
Review of fractions. Simple and compound proportion. Partnership.
. Three hours.
Knowledge of forms, treated inductively. One hour.
unning hand, from copy slips. Two hours.
From bodies bounded by curved lines. Two hours.

LOWER THIRD CLASS, THIRTY HOURS.

ax. Rules of cases from Zumpt. Exercises and extemporalia. Inflections
ed reviewed. Cornelius Nepos Eight hours.
nology, from Buttmann's grammar to regular verbs, included. Translation
to German from Jacob's, from German into Greek from Hess's exercises.

ompositions in narration and description. Declamation. Two hours.
petition of inflections, and exercises by extemporalia and in writing. Trans-
bles from Herrmann's reading book, 2d course. Two hours.
orals, and Christian faith. Two hours.
Physical geography. Europe and the other parts of the world. Two hours.
eneral view of ancient and modern history. Two hours.
. Legendre's geometry, book 1. Decimals. Algebra. Square and cube root.

Introduction to landscape drawing. Two hours.

UPPER THIRD CLASS, THIRTY HOURS.

ision I. Syntax, from Zumpt. Review of the preceding course. Oral exer-
ction of sentences. Written exercises and extemporalia. Cæsar Bell. Gall

books 1, 2, and 7, in part. Ovid's Metamorphoses, extracts from books 7 and 8. Prosody, rules from Zumpt. Ten hours.

Greek. *Division I*. Etymology, from Buttmann's grammar. Oral and written exercises and extemporalia. Jacob's reader. Six hours.

German. Examination of exercises on historical subjects. Poetical selections for declamation. Two hours.

French. Exercises in translation. Written exercises. Extemporalia. Two hours.

Religion. Principal passages from the gospels gone over. General view of the Old Testament writings. Two hours.

History and Geography. Roman history, from the Punic Wars to the destruction of the western empire. History of the middle ages, three hours. Review of the five general divisions of the world, one hour. Four hours.

Mathematics. Geometry. Legendre, books 1 and 2, and part of 3. Algebra, with exercises from Meyer Hirsch. Four hours.

LOWER SECOND CLASS, THIRTY-ONE HOURS.

Latin. Extracts from Livy and Cæsar de Bell. Civ. Review of Bell. Gall., books 2 and 3. Syntax. Exercises and extemporalia. Committing to memory exercises from Livy and Cæsar. Ovid's Metamorphoses, books 11 to 14. Eight hours.

Greek. Homer's Odys., 11, 12, 13, and 14. Exercises on the dialects. Xenophon's Anab. 1. 2, and part of 3. Excerpts from the grammar reviewed. Exercises and extemporalia. Syntax. Six hours.

Hebrew. Grammar, ending with irregular verbs. Easier parts of historical books of Scripture translated. Vocabulary learned by rote. Exercises on regular and irregular verbs out of the recitation room. Two hours.

German. Correction of written exercises and essays. Exercises on delivery. Two hours.

French. Voltaire's Charles XII. Exercises and extemporalia. Two hours.

Religion. Explanation of the principal parts of the Epistles of St. Paul, with historical sketches, and a view of the life of early Christian communities. Two hours.

History. Roman history, from the Punic Wars. History of the middle ages concluded. General view of history. Three hours.

Mathematics. Geometry to proportions and simple figures. Elements of algebra. Logarithms. Four hours.

Natural History. Mineralogy. Botany, especially of native plants. Two hours.

UPPER SECOND CLASS, THIRTY-TWO HOURS.

Latin. Cicero's Orations, pro. Rosc. Amer., de Amic., de Senectute. Livy, books 22 to 25, inclusive. Virgil's Æneid, books 1 and 2. Some eclogues and excerpts from Georgics. Exercises and extemporalia. Nine hours.

Greek. Homer's Iliad, books 4 to 11, inclusive. Arrian Alex. expedition, books 1 and 2. Buttmann's grammar, with exercises and extemporalia. Six hours.

Hebrew. Books of Judges and of Ruth, with exercises of syntax. Easy exercises, and committing vocabulary to memory out of the class-room. Two hours.

German. Essays. Delivery. Two hours.

French. Excerpts from Herrmann and Brüchner's manual of the more recent French literature. Two hours.

Religion. Christian faith and morals. Two hours.

History. Review of ancient history and geography, using the Latin language. Three hours.

Mathematics. Arithmetical geometry and plane trigonometry. Algebraic exercises. Polygons. Stereometry. Simple and quadratic equations. Four hours.

Physics. General physics. Electricity and magnetism. Two hours.

FIRST CLASS, THIRTY-ONE HOURS.

Latin. Horace's Odes, books 3 and 4. Cicero against Verres. Tacitus, Annals, books 11 and 12, and extracts from 3 to 6. Cicero, Tusc. quest. Extempore translations from German into Latin. Exercises. Declamation. Eight hours.

Greek. Homer's Iliad, book 16, Odyssey, books 9 to 16, inclusive. Hippias Major, Charmides, and Gorgias of Plato, (excerpts.) Sophocles' Edip. tyr. and Antigone. Grammatical exercises. Buttmann's grammar. Six hours.

Hebrew. Second book of Kings. Genesis. Psalms, 61 to 100. Grammatical criticisms of historical excerpts, or of psalms, as an exercise at home. Two hours.

German. Criticism of compositions. General grammar, and history of the German grammar and literature. One hour.

French. Selections from Scribe and Delavigne. Exercises and extemporalia. Two hours.

Religion. History of the Christian church, to the times of Gregory VII. Two hours.

History. Modern history, and review. Three hours.

Mathematics. Plane trigonometry and application of algebra to geometry. Algebra. Mensuration and conic sections. Binomial theorem. Exponential and trigon. functions. Four hours.

Physics. Physical geography. Mechanics. Two hours

Philosophy. Propædeutics. Logic. One hour.

There are five classes for vocal music, the fifth receiving two hours of instruction in musical notation and singing by ear. The fourth, time and cliffs, &c. Exercises in the natural scale, and harmony. Songs and chorals with one part. The third, two hours, formation of the scale of sharps, running the gamut with difficult intervals, combined with the practical exercises of the last class. The second, two hours, repetition of tones; sharps, and flats. Formation of the scale of flats. Exercises of songs and chorals, in two parts. The first class is an application of what has been learned, as well as a continuation of the science and art, and all the pupils do not, of course, take part in this stage of the instruction. The course is of four hours per week, two for soprano and alto, one for tenor and bass, and one for the union of the four parts. The proficiency is indicated by the fact, that the pupils perform very creditably such compositions as Haydn's "Creation" and Handel's "Messiah."

nporalia spoken of in the courses of language, consist of written nade on the spot by the pupils into a foreign language, of sentences vernacular by the teacher. These sentences are, of course, adapted ss of the pupil, and are prepared beforehand by the teacher who , especially in the early parts of the course, the application of the nmar on which the pupil is engaged, or of peculiarities of idiom to ntion is called.

ical course, the oral and written exercises are varied in their relative each other. The translation from Latin or Greek into German, , the grammatical exercises, Latin compositions or essays, the ex- ore explained, the practice in versification, &c., are varied in amount t classes, according to the views of the instructor.

teristic difference between the classical instruction in the higher those of similar schools in England and our country, is that, in gen- ses the grammatical minutiæ to have been fully impressed in the and discusses philological questions, varieties of reading and collate- of antiquities, history, biography, and geography. The students oral instruction, which they are required to record. The same is even a greater extent in the other departments of instruction, and thus acquire a facility in taking notes which they turn to good e university lectures, and which strikes a stranger with surprise on g it.

pupils in this class of schools begin their classical course at nine or ge, and yet, judging by the progress shown in the programme of , and by the scholars which the universities of northern Germany which are, in fact, formed in the gymnasia, the proficiency is all sired. It is what a youth of nineteen issuing from one of our col- e proud of, and clearly proves that the classics are not begun too

tongue and French are both taught in these institutions, in combi- e classical studies. These languages are not merely entered upon e, but are actually more or less thoroughly taught, according to the allotted and the skill of the teacher. The course of German would d to make both writers and speakers, and, probably, if the demand vere equal to that of the former, this would prove true in the latter in the former.

s characteristic of these schools is a striking one, and important in e Bible is taught rather than a particular creed, though from the pupils are nearly all of one creed, this forbearance is not essential, ways exercised. The separation of religious from other instruction most injurious tendency, and their connection, as in these schools, ry, a happy influence. Religious knowledge is classed with the formal division of the subjects of study.

of physics of the Frederick William gymnasium are exceedingly to fulfil their object, to give general ideas of natural phenomena, into what may be considered technical minutiæ; in the latter school ected with an excellent course of physical geography. It seems to hether, in the natural history course, more than a general outline is necessary, with the prosecution, practically, of such branches as the institution may render applicable for improving the habits of d discrimination. The scientific details of the different branches o special purposes of study than to general education. The expe- e institutions may, however, be appealed to as proving the entire f such instruction with an otherwise sound system, and the entire ccomplishing it without neglecting other more important branches.

d vocal music, which form parts of the regular courses of all these ve not yet found their way into the systems of other nations on the th the regular studies. As a part of physical training, they are im- offering a relief from severer pursuits, further recommend them- onnection.

The Frederick William Gymnasium is regarded by Dr. Bache, as a fair specimen of this class of schools in Prussia; in the organization and instruction of which a good degree of liberty is tolerated by the government, to enable them the better to meet the peculiar circumstances of each province, and the peculiar views of each director.

The Royal Real School, and City Trade School of Berlin, furnish a course of instruction of the same general value for mental discipline, but better calculated for that class of pupils who are destined in life, not for what are designated as the learned profession, but for tradesmen and mechanics. There is less of verbal knowledge but more of mathematics and their application to the arts; and the whole is so arranged as to facilitate the acquisition of those mental habits which are favorable to the highest practical success.

ROYAL REAL SCHOOL OF BERLIN.

The Royal Real School of Berlin was founded as early as 1747, by Counsellor Hecker. At the period in which this school was founded, Latin and Greek were the exclusive objects of study in the learned schools, and the avowed purpose of this establishment was that "not mere words should be taught to the pupils, but realities, explanations being made to them from nature, from models and plans, and of subjects calculated to be useful in after-life." Hence the school was called a "real school," and preserves this name, indicative of the great educational reform which it was intended to promote, and the success of which has been, though slow, most certain.

The successor of Hecker, in 1769, divided this flourishing school into three departments, the pedagogium, or learned school, the school of arts, and the German school: the whole establishment still retaining the title of real school. The first named department was subsequently separated from the others, constituting the Frederick William gymnasium; the school of arts, and the German, or elementary school, remain combined under the title of the royal real school. The same director, however, still presides over the gymnasium and the real school.

The question has been much agitated, whether the modern languages should be considered in these schools as the substitutes for the ancient in intellectual education, or whether mathematics and its kindred branches should be regarded in this light. Whether the original principle of the "realities" on which the schools were founded, was to be adhered to, or the still older of verbal knowledge, only with a change of languages, to be substituted for it. In this school the languages will be found at present to occupy a large share of attention, while in the similar institution, a description of which follows this, the sciences have the preponderance.

In the royal real school the branches of instruction are—religion, Latin, French, English, German, physics, natural history, chemistry, history, geography, drawing, writing, and vocal music. The Latin is retained as practically useful in some branches of trade, as in pharmacy, as aiding in the nomenclature of natural history, and as preventing a separation in the classes of this school and that of the gymnasium, which would debar the pupils from passing from the former to the latter in the upper classes. It must be admitted that, for all purposes but the last, it occupies an unnecessary degree of attention, especially in the middle classes.

The following table shows the distribution of time among the courses. There are seven classes in numerical order, but ten, in fact, the third, fourth, and fifth being divided into two; the lower fourth is again, on account of its numbers, subdivided into two parallel sections. Of these, the seventh, sixth, and fifth are elementary classes, the pupils entering the seventh at between five and seven years of age. In the annexed table the number of hours of recitation per week of each class in the several subjects is stated, and the vertical column separating the elementary classes from the others, contains the sum of the hours devoted to each branch in the higher classes, excluding the lower section of the fourth class, which has not a distinct course from that of the other division.

NG THE NUMBER OF HOURS OF RECITATION PER WEEK, OF EACH CLASS,
THE SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN THE ROYAL REAL SCHOOL OF BERLIN.

													Proportion of other studies to German in the		
STUDY.	First Class.	Second Class.	Third Class, A.	Third Class, B.	Fourth Class, A.	Fourth Class, B. I.	Fourth Class, B. II.	Sum of the hours in the seven upper classes.	Fifth Class, A.	Fifth Class, B.	Sixth Class.	Seventh Class.	Royal Real School.	First six classes of the Fred'k Wm. Gymn.	In all the classes of the Fred'k. Wm. Gymn.
......	4	4	4	5	6	5	6	28					1.4	2.9	3
......	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	22	4	5			1.1	0.7	0.9
......	2	2	2					6					0.3		
......	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	20	8	8	10	10	1.0	0.8	1.0
—															
......	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	2	3	2	2	0.6	0.6	0.8
s,*	6	6	5	6	7	6	4	35	4	3	6	6	1.7	1.1	1.6
tory, ..	3	2	2	2				9					0.4	0.1†	0.1
......	2	2	2	2				8					0.4	0.2†	0.2
......	2	2	2	2				8					0.4		
......				3	3	3	3	9	2	2	2		0.4	0.5	0.5
......	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	15	2	2	2		0.7	0.3	0.7
—															
......	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	12					0.6	0.4	0.4
......					2	2	2	4	4	4	6	8	0.2	0.3	0.3
......	2	4	3	2	2	2	2	15					0.7	0.6	0.6
l, ...	36	36	35	35	32	32	32		26	26	26	26			

enter this school between five and seven years of age, and go regu- the elementary classes, are prepared at ten to pass to its higher enter the lowest of the gymnasium. It is thus after the fifth class rison of the two institutions must begin. The studies of the real r, and of the gymnasium, have exactly the same elementary basis, ain so far parallel to each other that a pupil, by taking extra instruc- , may pass from the lower third class of the former to the lower third This fact alone is sufficient to show that the real schools must be r secondary instruction, since the pupils have yet three classes to pass reaching the point just referred to. It serves also to separate the from the higher burgher schools, since the extreme limit of the e latter, with the same assistance in regard to Greek, only enables each the lower third class of the gymnasium. In general, a pupil ate his studies in the real school at between sixteen and eighteen The difference between the subjects of instruction in the real he Frederick William gymnasium, consists in the omission in the reek, Hebrew, and philosophy, and the introduction of English and The relative proportions of time occupied in the same subjects in the will be seen by comparing the two columns next on the right of the he seventh class, in the table just given. The first of these columns proportion of the number of hours per week devoted to the different e six classes of the real school above the elementary, the number of d to the German being taken as unity; and the second, the same six classes of the gymnasium, beginning with the lowest, the same ours being taken as the unit, as in the preceding column. To bring istory and physics into comparison, I have taken the numbers for the

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rithmetic, geometry, algebra, and trigonometry.
bers include the entire course.

upper classes of the gymnasium in which these branches are taught. Of the courses common to the two schools, those to which nearly equal attention is paid in both institutions, are—the religious instruction, the German, geography and history, writing, and vocal music. The French, mathematics, physics, and natural history, predominate in the real school, the Latin in the gymnasium. The effect of reckoning the first, second, and upper third classes of the gymnasium, does not materially change the proportionate numbers of the courses which are common to the two schools, except as to Latin and mathematics. To show this, the column on the extreme right of the table is introduced, containing the proportions for all the nine classes of the Frederick William gymnasium.

There were, in 1838, five hundred and ten pupils in this real school, under the charge of fourteen regular or class masters, teaching several subjects in the lower classes, and of six other teachers. Each of the eleven class divisions thus averages about forty-six, who are under the charge of one teacher at a time.

The elementary course in the real school is similar to that described in the burgher schools, beginning with the phonic method of reading, the explanations of all the words and sentences being required at the same time that the mechanical part of reading is learned. Written and mental arithmetic are taught together in the lowest class. The religious instruction consists of Bible stories adapted to their age; and verses are committed to improve the memory of words. The exercises of induction are practiced, but in a way not equal to that with objects, introduced by Dr. Mayo in England. Some of the pupils are able to enter the gymnasium after going through the two lowest classes.

In regard to the real classes proper, as I propose to enter into the particulars of the course of study of the trade school, I shall here merely make a few remarks upon two of the branches studied in them, namely, French and drawing. The remarks in regard to the French will serve to show how great a latitude a teacher is allowed in the arrangement of his methods, the result of which is, that those who have talent are interested in improving their art by observation and experiment. The French teacher to whom I allude had been able to secure the speaking, as well as the reading, of French from his pupils. From the very beginning of the course this had been a point attended to, and translation from French into German had been accompanied by that from German into French: the conversation on the business of the class-room was in French. The pupils were exercised especially in the idioms of the language in short extempore sentences, and the differences of structure of the French and their own language were often brought before them, and the difficulties resulting from them anticipated. Difficult words and sentences were noted by the pupils. Declamation was practiced to encourage a habit of distinct and deliberate speaking, and to secure a correct pronunciation. The chief burthen of the instruction was oral. Without the stimulus of change of places, the classes under this gentleman's instruction were entirely alive to the instruction, and apparently earnestly engaged in the performance of a duty which interested them. If such methods should fail in communicating a greater amount of knowledge than less lively ones, which I belive can not be the case, they will serve, at least, to break down habits of intellectual sloth to promote mental activity, the great aim of intellectual education.

The drawing department of this school is superintended by a teacher who has introduced a new method of instruction, particularly adapted to the purpose for which drawing is to be applied in common life and in the arts; a method which is found to enable a much larger proportion of the pupils to make adequate progress than the ordinary one of copying from drawings.* In this method the pupil begins by drawing from simple geometrical forms, those selected being obtained from models in wood or plaster, of a square pillar,† a niche, and a low cylinder, (the form of a mill-stone.) The square pillar separates in joints, affording a cube and parallelopipeds of different heights. The hemisphere which caps the niche may be removed, leaving the concave surface of its cylindrical part. The exercises of the pupil ran thus: First, to place upon a board, or upon his paper or

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* Mr. Peter Schmidt, who now, in his old age, has received from the government a pension in return for the introduction of his method, and the instruction in it of a certain number of teachers.

† Seven and a half inches high, and one inch and a half in its square section.

t vertically above another, or so that the lines joining the two shall
the right or left hand edge of the board, paper, or slate. Second,
. Third, to place a point horizontally from the second, and at a dis-
to that between the first and second points. Fourth, to place one
r the third, and at a distance equal to that below the first, and to
l and fourth. The first and fourth being then joined, a square is
ter practice in this, the simple elevation of the cube is drawn. Next,
, by the use of a small frame and silk threads, such as is common in
elements of this subject, and by means of which the pupil acquires
owledge of the practice. The drawing of lines in various positions,
ious proportions, terminates this division of the subject. The niche
afford a similarly graduated series of lessons on the drawing of curved
e drawing of lines of different degrees of strength and of shadows is
This is accompanied with some of the more simple rules of shadow
More difficult exercises of perspective follow from natural objects
rks of art or mechanism, according to the direction to the pupil's at-
d the amount of taste which he displays. This method of teaching
roduced quite generally in Prussia, and with the best results as to the
accuracy of eye and of hand.

CITY TRADE SCHOOL.

Trade School was founded to give a more appropriate education for
arts and higher trades than can be had through the courses of clas-
It is a great point gained, when the principal is admitted that dif-
of education are suited to different objects in life; and such an ad-
ngs to an advanced stage of education. As a consequence of a gen-
nt of this kind, numerous schools for the appropriate instruction of
ended for the learned professions grow up by the side of the others.
f Berlin is the patron of the trade school which I am about to notice,
s of the real school already spoken of. Its stability is thus secured,
ns of furnishing it with the necessary materials for instruction are
vided.* The trade school is a day school, and consists of five classes,
lowest is on the same grade as to age and qualification at admission,
class of a gymnasium. It is assumed that at twelve years of age it
en decided whether a youth is to enter one of the learned professions,
a mechanical employment, or to engage in trade, but the higher classes
d against pupils. Of the five classes, four are considered necessary
ursuits and the whole five for others; the courses of all but the first
year, that of the first, two years, a youth leaving the school at from
8 years of age, according to circumstances. During the year 1836–7,
of pupils in the several classes were, in the first class, eleven; in the
ty-nine; in the upper third, forty-three; in the lower third, fifty-
fourth, fifty; total, one hundred and eighty-five; from which num-
rs that a considerable proportion of the pupils leave the school without
first class. The number of teachers is nineteen, five being regular or
s, and fourteen assistants. The director gives instruction.
ing list of the callings to which pupils from this school have gone on
ll show that it is really what it professes to be, a school for the in-
those who intend to follow occupations connected with "commerce,
ts, higher trades, building, mining, forestry, agriculture, and military
rther, that its advantages are appreciated by the class for whom it is
The list includes the pupils who have left the school from the first and
s, in the years 1830, 1832, 1833 and 1837. From the first class, two
architects, one chemist, twenty-six merchants, one machinest, two
s, two glass-workers, one cloth manufacturer, one silk manufacturer,
hirteen agriculturalists, eight apothecaries, two gardeners, one painter,
one carpenter, one tanner, one miller, one baker, one potter, one
soap-boiler, one cabinet-maker, two soldiers, one musician, five to

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nt director of this school, Mr. Kloden, was formerly director of the higher
l at Potsdam, and is one of the most distinguished teachers in his line in Persia.

public offices, one to the trade institution, six to gymnasium. From the second class, forty-one merchants, one teacher, one chemist, one machinest, one ship-carpenter, nine agriculturist, one sugar-refiner, three dyers, one tanner, one brewer, two distillers, one miner, two lithographers, one dye-sinker, three apothecaries, one dentist, two painters, two gardeners, three masons, five carpenters, one miller, four bakers, one butcher, one to the trade institution, three to public offices, two to a gymnasium, one musician, one veterinary surgeon, one soldier, being ninety from the first class, and ninety-seven from the second, in the period of four years.

In the course of instruction, the sciences and kindred branches are made the basis, and the modern languages are employed as auxiliaries, the ancient languages being entirely omitted. The subjects embraced in it are—religious instruction, German, French, English, geography, history, mathematics, physics, chemistry, technology, natural history, writing, drawing, and vocal music.

The courses are fully laid down in the following list, beginning with the studies of the lowest or fourth class.

FOURTH CLASS.

*Religious Instruction.** The gospel according to St. Luke, and the Acts of the Apostles explained, with a catechetical development of the truths of religion and ethical applications. Two hours per week.

German. Grammatical exercises in writing. Recital of poetical pieces.

French. Grammatical exercises. Regular and irregular verbs. Reading from Lauren's Reader. One hour of conversation. Four hours.

Arithmetic. Mental and written, including proportions and fractions, with the theory of the operations. Four hours.

Geometry. Introductory course of forms. Two hours.

Geography. Elementary, mathematical, and physical geography. Two hours.

Natural History. In the summer term, elements of botany, with excursions. In the winter, the external characters of animals. Two hours.

Physics. Introductory instruction. General properties of bodies. Forms of crystals, specific gravity, &c. Two hours.

Writing. Two hours.

Drawing. Outline drawing and shadows, from models and copy-boards. Two hours.

Vocal Music. Two hours.

LOWER THIRD CLASS.

Religious Instriction. The Acts of the Apostles and the Epistles read and explained. Two hours.

German. Grammar with special reference to orthography and etymology. Written exercises upon narrations made by the teacher. Delivery of poetical pieces. Four hours.

French. Translation from French into German from Gredicke's Chrestomathy. Grammar; irregular verbs. Extemporalia, and translations from German into French. Four hours.

Arithmetic. Partly abstract, partly practical, from Diesterweg's Instructor. Four hours.

Geometry. Determination of angles in triangles and polygons. Equality of triangles. Dependance of angles and sides of triangles. Constructions. Three hours.

Geography. Physical description of the parts of the earth, except Europe. Two hours.

Natural History. Mineralogy. In summer, botany, the class making excursions for practical exercise. Man. Three hours.

Physics. General properties of bodies and solids in particular. Doctrines of heat and their application to natural phenomena and the arts. Two hours.

Chemistry. Introduction. Atmospheric air. Experimental illustrations of chemistry, applied to the arts. Two hours.

Writing. Two hours. *Architectural and topographical drawing.* Two hours. *Drawing* by hand for those who do not take part in the other. Two hours.

Vocal Music. Two hours.

UPPER THIRD CLASS.

Religious Instruction. Christian morals, from Luther's Catechism. Two hours.

German. Simple and complex sentences. Compositions on special subjects. Poems explained and committed. Four hours.

French. Translation from Gredicke's Chrestomathy, oral and in writing. Written translations from Beauvais' Introduction, from German into French. Grammar, examples treated extempore. Four hours.

Arithmetic. Properties of numbers. Powers. Roots. Decimal fractions Practical Arithmetic from Diesterweg. Four hours.

Geometry. Similar figures. Geometrical proportion. Exercises. Mensuration of rectilinear figures. Three hours.

Geography. Physical geography of Europe, and in particular of Germany and Prussia. Two hours.

Natural History. Continuation of the mineralogy of the lower third class. Review in outline of zoology and the natural history of man in particular. Botany, with excursions in summer. Three hours.

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* Roman Catholic pupils are not required to take part in this instruction, which is communicated by a Protestant clergyman.

ctricity and magnetism, with experiments. Two hours.
Water and non-metallic bodies, with experiments. Two hours.
ro hours. *Architectural and topographical drawing.* Two hours. Some of
g this time are engaged in ornamental drawing.
Two hours.

SECOND CLASS.

truction. Explanation of the first three gospels. History of the Christian
irch to the reformation. Two hours.
rrection of exercises written at home, upon subjects assigned by the teacher.
n exercises. Introduction to the history of German poetry Three hours.
mmar; extemporalia for the application of the rules. Written and oral
n German into French, from Beauvais' Manual, and vice versa, from Ideler
nual. Four hours.
ercises in reading and speaking. Translation into German, from Burkhardt.
bs. Two hours.
Commercial Arithmetic. Algebra, to include simple and quadratic equa-
ms. Three hours.
Circles. Analytical and plane trigonometry. Three hours.
The states of Europe, with special reference to their population, manufac-
nerce. Two hours.
ncipal events of the history of the middle ages and of later times, as an intro-
nt history. One hour.
ory. Mineralogy. Physiology of plants. Three hours.
Metallic bodies and their compounds, with experiments. Three hours.
, topographical, and plain drawing. Drawing with instruments. Introduc-
k drawing. Beginning of the science of constructions. Two hours.
From copies, and from plaster and other models. Two hours. This kind of
e learned instead of the above.
Two hours.

FIRST CLASS.

struction. History of the Christian religion and church continued. Refer-
le. One nour.
istory of German literature to recent times. Essays. Exercises of delivery.

ading from the manual of Buchner and Hermunn, with abstracts. Classic
Review of Grammar. Exercises at home, and extemporalia. Free delivery.
xercises. Four hours.
ntax, with written and extèmpore exercises from Burkhardt. Reading of
Writing of letters. Exercises in speaking.
Algebra. Simple and quadratic equations. Binomial and polynomial theo-
equations. Commercial arthmetic continued. Three hours.
Plane trigonometry and its applications. Conic sections. Descriptive Geome-
urs.
story of the middle ages. Modern history, with special reference to the prog-
ion, of inventions, discoveries, and of commerce and industry. Three hours.
ory. In summer, botany, the principal families, according to the natural sys-
r, zoology. The pupils are taken, for the purpose of examining specimens to
eum.
summer, optics with experiments. In winter the system of the world.

Chemical and mechanical arts and trades, described and illustrated by mo-
ons to visit the principal workshops. Four hours.
l and machine drawing. Two hours. Those pupils who do not take part in
sons in ornamental drawing from plaster models.
Two hours.
f this class are, besides, engaged in manipulating in the laboratory of the insti-
urs each week.

es require a good collection of apparatus and specimens to carry
d this school is, in fact, better furnished than any other of its grade
in Prussia, besides which, its collections are on the increase. The
he courses are furnished by a collection of mathematical and physical
labratory, with a tolerably complete chemical apparatus and series of
tion of specimens of the arts and manufactures (or technological col-
llection of dried plants, and of engravings for the botanical course,
garden for the same use, a collection of minerals, a collection of insects,
n comparative anatomy, a series of engravings for the drawing course,
r models, a set of maps, and other apparatus for geography, some as-
struments, and a library. The pupils are taken from time to time,
able museum attached to the university of Berlin, for the examination
specimens especially.
school is as a preparation for the higher occupations, and for profes-
nking among the learned, the equivalent of the gymnasium is clearly
he subjects and scope of its courses, and by the age of its pupils.

Some of these occupations require no higher instruction, others that the pupils shall pass to the special schools introductory to them. So also, many of the pupils of the gymnasia pass at once into active life, others enter the university.

The class of schools to which the two last described belong, are most important in their influence. In many countries, an elementary education is the limit beyond which those intending to enter the lower grades of the occupations enumerated in connection with the City Trade School of Berlin, do not pass; and if they are inclined to have a better education, or if intending to embrace a higher occupation, they desire to be better instructed, they must seek instruction in the classical schools. The training of these schools is, however, essentially different from that required by the tradesman and mechanic, the verbal character of the instruction is not calculated to produce the habits of mind in which he should be brought up, and the knowledge which is made the basis of mental training is not that which he has chiefly occasion to use. Besides, were the course ever so well adapted to his object, the time at which he must leave school only permits him to follow a part of it, and he is exposed to the serious evils which must flow from being, as it were, but half taught.

In fact, however, he requires a very different school, one in which the subjects of instruction are adapted to his destination, while they give him an adequate intellectual culture; where the character of the instruction will train him to the habits which must, in a very considerable degree, determine his future usefulness; and where the course which he pursues will be thorough, as far as it goes, and will have reached before he leaves the school the standard at which it aims. Such establishments are furnished by the real schools of Germany, and as the wants which gave rise to them there, are strongly felt every where, this class of institutions must spread extensively. In Germany they are, as has been seen, no new experiment, but have stood the test of experience, and with various modifications to adapt them to differences of circumstances or of views in education, they are spreading in that country. As they become more diffused, and have employed a greater number of minds in their organization, their plans will no doubt be more fully developed.

It is certainly highly creditable to Germany that its "gymnasia," on the one hand, and its "real schools" on the other, offer such excellent models of secondary instruction in its two departments. The toleration which allows these dissimilar establishments to grow up side by side, admitting that each, though good for its object, is not a substitute for the other, belongs to an enlightened state of sentiment in regard to education, and is worthy of the highest commendation.

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDIES IN THE CITY TRADE SCHOOL OF BERLIN.

SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.	NO. OF HOURS PER WEEK.					
	First Class.	Second Class.	Upper Third Class.	Lower Third Class.	Fourth Class.	Total.
Religion,	1	2	2	2	2	9
German,	3	3	4	4	4	18
French,	4	4	4	4	4	20
English,	2	2				4
Arithmetic,	3	3	4	4	4	18
Geometry,	3	3	3	3	2	14
Geography,		2	2	2	2	8
History,	3	1				4
Natural History,	2	3	3	3	2	13
Physics,	3		2	2	2	9
Chemistry,		3	2	2		7
Technology,	4					4
Writing,			2	2	2	6
Drawing,	4	4	2	2	2	14
Vocal Music,	2	2	2	2	2	10
Total,	34	32	32	32	28	

a, every trade in which a want of skill may jeopard human
ated by law; and before its exercise can be commenced, a
equired, to obtain which an examination must be passed.
ition of the law is considered to involve a reciprocal obliga-
part of the government to afford the opportunity of obtain-
essary knowledge, and schools have accordingly been estab-
e purpose. Twenty of the regencies of the kingdom already
cal schools established in them, where instruction is, in gen-
at the expense of the state, or province, or for a very trifling
on; and it is the intention that each regency shall have at
ch school within its limits. When there is a burgher school
intended as the locality for one of these technical schools,
ools are connected as already described: at Potsdam, the
nical course alone being given in a separate department.
the government supplies the apparatus for the courses of
physics, and chemistry; furnishes the requisite engravings
rses of drawing; and supplies works for the library and for

promising pupils from the provincial schools usually find
e central Institute at Berlin, which is in fact the university
here is a special school for ship-builders at Stettin, in

INSTITUTE OF ARTS OF BERLIN.

tion is intended to impart the theoretical knowledge essential to im
the arts, and such practical knowledge as can be acquired to advan-
ool. It is supported by the government, and has also a legacy, to be
bursaries at the school, from Baron Von Seydlitz. The institution is
arge of a director,* who has the entire control of the funds, of the
nd dismissions, and the superintendence of the instruction. The pro-
upils do not reside in the establishment, so that the superintendence
study hours. There are assistant professors, who prepare the lec-
nduct a part of the exercises, in some cases reviewing the lessons of
s with the pupils. Besides these officers there are others, who have
e admirable collections of the institution, and of the workshops,
The number of professors is eight, and of repeaters, two. The dis-
the most simple character, for no pupil is allowed to remain in con-
the institution unless his conduct and progress are satisfactory. There
nishment recognized, namely, dismission; and even a want of punc-
ted thus severely.

ing of every year the regencies advertise that applications will be re-
lmission into the institute, and the testimonials of the candidates who
best claims are forwarded to the director at Berlin, who decides finally
eral nominations. The pupils from the provincial schools have, in
preference over other applicants. At the same time notice is given
dent of the Society for the Promotion of National Industry, in rela-
ursaries vacant upon the Seydlitz foundation. The qualifications es-
mission are—to read and write the German language with correctness
and to be thoroughly acquainted with arithmetic in all its branches.
te must, besides, be at least seventeen years of age. Certain of the

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tor, M. Beuth, is also president of the Royal Technical Commission of Prussia,
istribution of the funds for the encouragement of industry, amounting to about
housand dollars annually. M. Beuth is also a privy counsellor, and is president
for the Encouragement of National Industry in Prussia.

pupils, as will be hereafter more fully stated, require to have served an apprenticeship to a trade. The Seydlitz bursar must, in addition, show—1st. That their parents were not artizans,* relatives of the founder having the preference over other applicants. 2d. That they have been apprenticed to a trade, if they intend to follow one not taught in the institution. 3d. They must enter into an engagement that if they leave the mechanical career they will pay back the amount of their bursaries. There are sixty or seventy gratuitous pupils in the school of whom eighteen are upon the Seydlitz foundation. Forty are admitted annually, this number having been adopted because it is found that, in the course of the first month, about a fourth of the newly admitted pupils fall away from the institution. Each bursar receives two hundred and twenty-five dollars per annum for maintenance. The education is gratuitous. The regular pupils enter on the first of October, but the director is authorized to admit, at his pleasure, applicants who do not desire to become bursars, but who support themselves, receiving gratuitously, however, the instruction afforded by the institution.

The education of the pupils is either solely theoretical, or combines theory and practice, according to the calling which they intend to follow. The first division is composed of students, who receive theoretical instruction only, and who are preparing to become masons, carpenters, and joiners. They are supposed to have become acquainted with the practice of their trade before entering the institution, being required to have served, previously, a part of their apprenticeship. An excellent reason is assigned for this rule, namely, that on leaving the school such pupils are too old to begin their apprenticeship to these callings, and would, if they attempted to do so, find the first beginnings so irksome as to induce them to seek other employments, and thus their special education would be lost, and the object of the school defeated. The second division embraces both theoretical and practical instruction, and consists of three classes. First, the stone-cutters, engravers, lapidaries, glass-cutters, carvers in wood and ivory, and brass-founders. Second, dyers and manufacturers of chemical products. Third, machine-makers and mechanicians. The practical instruction is different for each of these three classes.

The general course of studies last two years, and the pupils are divided into two corresponding classes. The first class is, besides, subdivided into two sections. The lower or second class is taught first; mechanical drawing, subdivided into decorative drawing, including designs for architectural ornaments, utensils, vases, patterns for weaving, &c., and linear drawing, applied to civil works, to handicrafts, and to machines. Second, modelling in clay, plaster, and wax. Third, practical arithmetic. Fourth, geometry. Fifth, natural philosophy. Sixth, chemistry. Seventh, technology, or a knowledge of the materials, processes, and products of the arts. The studies of the lower section of the first class are general, while those of the first section turn more particularly upon the applications of science to the arts. In the lower section, the drawing, modelling, natural philosophy, and chemistry, of the first year, are continued; and, in addition, descriptive geometry, trigonometry, stereometry, mixed mathematics, mineralogy, and the art of construction are studied. In the upper or first section, perspective, stone-cutting, carpentry, and mechanics applied to the arts, are taught, and the making of plans and estimates for buildings, workshops, manufactories, machines, &c. These are common to all pupils, whatever may be their future destination; but beside them, the machinists study, during the latter part of their stay at the institution, a continuation of the course of mechanics and mathematical analysis. The examples accompanying the instruction in regard to plans and estimates are adapted to the intended pursuits of the pupils.

The courses of practice are begun by the pupils already enumerated as taking part in them, at different periods of their stay in the institution. The future chemists and mechanics must have completed the whole range of studies above mentioned, as common to all the pupils, while the others begin their practice after having completed the first year's course. There are workshops for each class of pupils, where they are taught the practice of their proposed calling, under competent workmen. There are two foundries for bronze castings, one for small, the ge castings, and the work turned out of both bears a high character. of this work is retained by the institution in a beautiful fountain, ents one of the courts of the building. The models for castings are establishment. In the first division of pupils, in reference to their e are usually some whose art is connected with the fine arts in some es, and these have an opportunity during part of the week to attend f the Berlin Academy. The future chemists work for half the year ory. They are chiefly employed in chemical analysis, being furnished uisite materials for practice by the institution. In the shops for the mechanics are machines for working in wood and the metals, a steam- r horses' power, a forge, tools in great variety, lathes, &c. The pupils of all necessary implements, according to their progress, and are ght, as if serving a regular apprenticeship. When capable, they are nstruct machines which may be useful to them subsequently, as a hine for cutting screws, or the teeth of wheels, &c., and are furnished naterials for the purpose, the machine becoming their own property. kshops, also, the models for the cabinet of the school are made. r the most complete establishment for practice which I met with in n, and I believe the practice is both real and effectual. It involves, expenditure which in other cases it has not been practicable to com- scale of the whole institution is, in the particular of expenditure, s.

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* The object of M. Von Seydlitz appears to have been to counteract, to the extent of his power, the tendency to the increase of the learned professions, at the expense of the mechanic arts, by an inducement to a course exactly contrary to the usual one.

e specimen of the various plans which have been devised to give wledge of an art in connection with theory in a school. It is first sly laid down that certain trades can not be taught to advantage in a ction, but that the practical knowledge must be acquired by an ap- antecedent to the theoretical studies.' There are besides, however, a r of trades, the practice of which is to be taught in the institu- uiring a very considerable expenditure to carry out the design pro- could not be attempted in a school less munificently endowed, very strict regulations to carry it through even here. The habits of shop are, in general, not those of a real manufactory, where the are made to be sold as a source of profit; hence, though the practi- e may be acquired, the habits of work are not, and the mechanic taught but not well trained. At the private school of Charonne, ere established, giving a variety of occupation to the pupils; but the play rather than to work, rendered these establishments too costly to by a private institution, and the plan adopted instead of this, was to ils enter a regular workshop for a stated number of hours, to work etor or lessee. This plan remedies one evil, but introduces another, achinist takes orders, with a view to profit, the work may have so s only to benefit a small class of the pupils. The pupils at Charonne under different circumstances from those at Berlin; they are gen- r, and, being independent of the school, where they pay for their not under the same restraint as in the other institution; hence the the one school does not apply in full force to the other. At Dres- ol somewhat similar to that of Berlin, a different mode from either nentioned has been adopted. An arrangement is made with a num- nics, of different occupations, to receive pupils from the schools as llowing them the privilege of attending, during certain specified day, upon the theoretical exercises of the institution. Where such nt can be made, the results are unexceptionable, and the advantages ie to the mechanic arts, from the union of theory with practice, will inducement to liberally disposed mechanics to take apprentices upon Small workshops, connected with an institution, must necessarily dvantages, even if closely regulated, so as to procure the greatest nt of work from the pupils; this should not be done for the sake of to give him genuinely good habits.

lties in giving practical instruction in the chemical arts are not to be h those under discussion, and will be found to have been satisfactorily veral schools. This subject will receive its more appropriate discus- ction with the polytechnic institution of Vienna, where the chemical department, at least as far as manufacturing chemistry is concerned, is generally recognized as having produced the best results of any yet established.

Returning to the subject of the theoretical instruction in the Berlin institute of arts, the following statement will serve to show the succession of the course, with the time devoted to each:

WINTER COURSE.

MONDAY.

First Class. First division—drawing and sketching machines, eight A. M. to twelve o'clock. Discussion of machines, estimates of power, &c., two P. M. to five P. M. Second division—machine drawing, eight to ten. Modelling in clay, ten to twelve. Physics, two to five.

Second Class. Machine drawing, eight to ten. Modelling, ten to twelve. Elements of geometry, two to four. Repetition of the lecture, four to five.

TUESDAY.

First Class. First division—architectural plans and estimates, eight to twelve. Practical instruction in machinery, two to five. Second division—ornamental and architectural drawing, eight to twelve. Trigonometry, two to five.

Second Class. Ornamental and architectural drawing, eight to twelve. Physics, two to four. Repetition of the lecture, four to five.

WEDNESDAY.

First Class. First division—original designs, eight to twelve. Discussion of machinery. Second division—mineralogy, eight to nine. Machine drawing, nine to twelve. Trigonometry, two to five.

Second Class. Machine drawing, eight to twelve. Practical arithmetic, two to five.

THURSDAY.

First Class. First division—drawing and sketching machines, eight to twelve. Architectural instruction, estimates, two to five. Second division—decorative and architectural drawing, eight to ten. Modelling in clay, ten to twelve. Trigonometry, two to five.

Second Class. Decorative and architectural drawing, eight to ten. Modelling in clay, ten to twelve. Physics, two to four. Repetition of the lecture, four to five.

FRIDAY.

First Class. First division—architectural plans, eight to twelve. Practical instruction in machinery, two to five. Second division—machine drawing, eight to twelve. Physics, two to five.

Second Class. Machine drawing, eight to twelve. Elementary mathematics, two to four. Repetition of the lessons, four to five.

SATURDAY.

First Class. First division—perspective and stone-cutting, eight to twelve. Original designs, two to five. Second division—mineralogy, eight to nine. Decorative and architectural drawing, nine to twelve. Trigonometry, two to five.

Second Class. Decorative and architectural drawing, eight to twelve. Practical arithmetic, two to five.

The summer term, which follows this, embraces the practical instruction.

SUMMER TERM.

MONDAY.

First Class. First division—in the workshops from seven A. M. to twelve, and from one until seven P. M. Second division—machine drawing, eight to twelve. Applied mathematics, two to five.

Second Class. Machine drawing, eight to ten. Modelling, ten to twelve. Chemistry, two to four. Repetition, four to five.

TUESDAY.

First Class. First division—analytical dynamics, eight to nine. Drawing of machines from original designs, nine to twelve. Machinery, two to five. Second division—decorative and architectural drawing, eight to twelve. Chemistry, two to five.

Second Class. Decorative and architectural drawing, eight to twelve. Elementary mathematics, two to four. Repetition, four to five.

WEDNESDAY.

First Class. First division—in the workshops from seven to twelve, and from one to seven. Second division—machine drawing, eight to ten. Modelling, ten to twelve. Applied mathematics, two to five.

Second Class. Machine drawing, eight to twelve. Practical arithmetic, two to four. Materials used in the arts, four to five.

THURSDAY.

First Class. First division—in the workshops from seven to twelve, and from one to seven. Second division—machine drawing, eight to ten. Modelling, ten to twelve. Applied mathematics, two to five.

Second Class. Decorative and architectural drawing, eight to ten. Modelling, ten to twelve. Chemistry, two to four. Repetition of the lesson, four to five.

FRIDAY.

First division—analytical dynamics, eight to nine. Drawing of a machine for
sign, nine to twelve. Machinery, two to five. Second division—chemistry,
Applied mathematics, nine to twelve. Chemistry, two to five.
. Machine drawing, eight to twelve. Elementary mathematics, two to four.
he lesson, four to five.

SATURDAY.

First division—in the workshops, from seven to twelve, and from one to
l division—decorative and architectural drawing, eight to twelve. Applied
wo to five.
. Decorative and architectural drawing, eight to twelve. Practical arithme-
. Materials used in the arts, four to five.
l division of the practical classes is engaged every day in the laboratory. On
Vednesday, the library is open for reading from five to eight, P. M.

ions for carrying out the various branches of instruction are upon
ral scale with the other parts of the institution. There is a library
rchitecture, mechanics, technology, the various arts, archeology, &c.,
'rench and English. This library is open twice a week, from five to
vening, to the pupils of the first class of the school, and to such me-
ply for the use of it.
rich collection of drawings of new and useful machines, and of illus-
e different courses, belonging to the institution. Among them is a
, published under the direction of Mr. Beuth, entitled Models for
and Artisans, (Vorlegeblätter for Fabricanten and Handwerker,)
gravings by the best artists of Germany, and some even from France
applicable to the different arts and to architecture and engineering.
drawings are many from original designs by Shenckel, of Berlin.
cond useful but more ordinary series of engravings, on similar sub-
cuted for the use of the school. These works are distributed to the
de schools, and presented to such of the mechanics of Prussia as
ly distinguished themselves in their vocations. The collection of
chinery belonging to the school probably ranks next in extent and
at the Conservatory of Arts of Paris. It contains models of such
are not readily comprehended by drawings. Most of them are
els, and many were made in the workshops of the school. They
d, as far as possible, to a uniform scale, and the parts of the models
ne materials as in the actual machine. There is an extensive col-
ts, consisting of copies of statues, basso-relievos, utensils, bronzes,
the museums of Naples, Rome, and Florence, and of the British
of the models of architectural monuments of Greece, Rome, Pom-
copies of models, cameos, and similar objects; those specimens only
ected which are not in the collection of the Academy of Fine Arts
which the pupils of the Institute of Arts have access. There are
ns of physical and chemical apparatus, of minerals, of geological and
specimens.
tion is afforded in part by the lectures of the professors, aided by
cially intended for the school, and in part by the interrogations of
and of the assistants and repeaters. At the close of the first year
amination to determine which of the pupils shall be permitted to go
at the close of the second year to determine which shall receive the
he institute. Although the pupils who come from the provinces are
e first class of the institute, upon their presenting a testimonial that
e through the course of the provincial schools satisfactorily, it fre-
ns that they are obliged to retire to the second, especially from de-
dge of chemistry.
this school to the government is about twelve thousand dollars an-
ve of the amount expended upon the practical courses and upon the
very trifling sum, if the good which it is calculated to do through-
y is considered.

ols and institutions above described, are only specimens of
he government to provide facilities for special instruction in
tment of labor which ministers to the physical wants of

society, and to the improvement of decorative art in the workshop and the factory. Schools for civil engineering, architecture, gardening, agriculture, commerce, &c., are established in different provinces, and aided by the government. The practical skill in drawing, made universal by its introduction as a regular exercise in all primary schools as well as perfected in the higher class of public schools, has given increased value to the productions of the loom, and the hand, and enabled the Prussian manufacturer not only to supply the home demand for articles of taste and beauty, but to compete successfully with those of other nations, in the markets of the world.

LEGAL PROVISION

RESPECTING THE

N, IMPROVEMENT, AND SUPPORT OF TEACHERS IN PRUSSIA.

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ving are the provisions of the law of 1819 respecting Normal
teachers. It is difficult to describe the well-qualified teacher
opriate language:

that a master may be enabled to fulfill the duties of his sta-
t to be religious, wise, and alive to the high importance of
n. He ought thoroughly to understand the duties of his
ve acquired the art of teaching and managing youth, to be
elity to the state, conscientious in the discharge of his duties,
prudent in his relations with the parents of his children, and
w-citizens in general; finally, he ought to inspire all around
lively interest in the progress of the school, and to render
ly inclined to second his own wishes and endeavors."

o insure the education of such schoolmasters, the following
re laid down:

partment is required to have a number of young men well
their duties, who may supply the yearly vacancies in the
schoolmasters of the department, and therefore each depart-
e required to support a Normal School. These establish-
e formed on the basis of the following regulations:

mal School for teachers in the primary schools shall admit
venty pupil teachers.
department where the numbers of Catholics and Protest-
t equal, there shall be, as often as circumstances will per-
l School for the members of each sect. But where there is
ed inequality in the numbers of the two sects, the masters of
nerous sect shall be obtained from the Normal Schools be-
at sect in a neighboring department, or by smaller establish-
same department annexed to an elementary primary school.
ols for simultaneous education of two sects shall be permitted
pil teachers can obtain close at hand suitable religious in-
h in the doctrines of his own church.
rmal Schools shall be established whenever it is possible in
so as to preserve the pupil teachers from the dissipations,
and habits of life which are not suitable to their future pro-
out subjecting them to a monastic seclusion; but the town
be too small, in order that they may profit by the vicinity of
entary and superior primary schools.
ng man can be received into a Normal School who has not
gh a course of instruction in an elementary primary school;
young man be received, of the excellence of whose moral
ere is the least ground of suspicion. The age of admission
mal Schools shall be from sixteen to eighteen years.
he methods of instruction, directors of the Normal Schools
seek to conduct the pupil teachers by their own experience
d clear principles, than to give them theories for their guid-
ith this end in view, primary schools shall be joined to all the

Normal Schools, where the pupil teachers may be practised in the art of teaching.

8. In each Normal School *the course of instruction shall last three years*, of which the first shall be devoted to the continuation of the course of instruction which the pupils commenced in the primary schools; the second to an instruction of a still higher character, and the third to practice in the primary school attached to the establishment. For those who are sufficiently advanced when they enter not to require the first year's instruction, the course may be reduced to one of two years.

10. In each Normal School particular funds, set apart for that purpose, shall be devoted to the support of young men of good character not able to pay for themselves, *but in such a manner as not to habituate them to too many comforts, and not to render them unfit for the worst paid situations in the primary schools.*

11. Every pupil who receives such assistance from a Normal School, is obliged at the end of his educational course to accept the place which the provincial consistories assign him; a prospect of advancement, however, must always be held out to him in case of perseverance and good conduct.

12. The provincial consistories have the immediate surveillance of all the Normal Schools in the different departments of their respective provinces; and the provincial ecclesiastical authorities have the especial surveillance of the religious instruction of their respective sects."

The following provisions, gathered from the law of 1819, and from the general regulations, have an important bearing on the social and pecuniary condition of the teacher.

No young man is allowed to conduct a primary school until he has obtained a certificate of his capacity to fulfill the important duties of a schoolmaster. The examinations of the candidates for these certificates is conducted by commissions, composed of two laymen and two clergymen, or two priests. The provincial consistories nominate the lay members, the ecclesiastical authorities of the respective provinces nominate the clerical members for the examination of the religious education of the Protestant candidates; and the Roman Catholic bishop nominates the two priests who examine the Roman Catholic candidates.

The members of these commissions are nominated for three years, and they can afterward be continued in their office if advisable.

The lay examiners and the clerical examiners join in granting the certificates, but the religious and secular examinations are conducted separately. The certificates are signed also by the director of the Normal School in which the young man has been educated, and describe his moral character and his intellectual capability.

These certificates are not valid until they have been ratified by the superior authorities, that is, by the provincial consistories; and in the case of the certificates granted to the Roman Catholics, the further ratification of the bishop is necessary. If the provincial consistories and the bishops can not agree about the granting of any certificate, the matter is referred to the minister of public instruction, who decides between them. The provincial authorities can re-examine the candidates, if they think there is any reason to doubt what is specified on the certificate granted by the committee of examination, and can declare them incapable, and can require the local authorities to proceed to another examination if they are not satisfied with the character of any of the candidates.

The young women who are candidates for the situations of schoolmistresses are obliged to submit to the same kind of examination before they can obtain the certificate enabling them to take the charge of a girls' school.

ction and nomination of masters for the communal schools, is
f the local committees, on the presentation of the communal

sters can not be installed and begin to receive their salaries,
certificates have been ratified by the provincial authorities.

ovincial consistories are required to choose able and zealous
pectors, and to engage them to form and direct great associa-
een the masters of the town and rural schools, for the purpose
among them a feeling of interest in their profession, of further-
rther development of their education by regular reunions, by
ns, conversations, practical treatises, study of particular branches
ion, and discussions on treatises read aloud in their public as-

eachers' conferences are very useful. They not only promote
generous emulation among the schoolmasters, and so stimulate
rther exertions, but they encourage the masters, by reminding
they form part of a great and honorable body. And nothing
man more than a feeling of association. Man alone is weak
but let him only feel that his feelings and aims are those of a
o regard him as their fellow, and he then is a giant in his
fforts.

vincial consistories have the power of sending the master of a
hool, who appears to be in need of further instruction, to a
chool, for the time that may appear requisite to give him the
additional instruction; during his absence his place is supplied
man from the Normal School, who receives a temporary cer-

enses of the conferences and of the masters who frequent for a
e the Normal Schools, are generally defrayed by the provincial
l authorities.

oolmasters are encouraged to continue their own education by
referment to better situations, or to superior schools; but before
ttain this preferment, they must pass a second examination,
by the same authorities who conducted the former.

oolmaster is negligent or conducts himself improperly in his
inspector of the school first remonstrates with him, and if this
vince him, the inspector of the canton reproves him; and if he
refractory, they report him to the provincial authorities, who
ower of fining him, or of removing him from the school.

mmits any flagrant crime, he is reported at once to the pro-
horities, who remove him immediately, after having carefully
e accusations brought against him by the inspectors.

chool in a village or town must have a garden suitable to the
he country and habits of the people, for a kitchen-garden, nur-
rd, or the raising of bees. This is provided as an additional
r the teacher, as well as an available means of instruction of
rs.

chool-house must not only embrace what we regard as essen-
es in such structures, such as size, location, ventilation, warmth,
desks, &c., but apparatus for illustrating every study, and "a
collection of books for the use of the master," as well as a resi-
him.

ver a new fund, legacy, or donation, accrues to the schools of a
r commune, the same must be appropriated to the improvement
ool, or of the master's income, and not to the diminution of any
e before collected.

actice of "boarding round," or the right of the teacher to a
he table of every family in the commune or district in rotation

(called in German, Wandeltisch, movable table,) formerly prevailed in Prussia, but it was first arrested by an ordinance in 1811, directing that this "movable table" should not be reckoned in payment of the teacher's compensation, and should be given up at the option of the teacher. It is now abandoned in every commune which makes any pretension to civilization. It never included any thing beyond an "itinerating table." The teacher always had a fixed residence provided, and usually under the same roof with his school.

Scholars are encouraged to form among themselves a fund, by voluntary contributions, for the assistance of their necessitous schoolfellows. The fund is managed by themselves under the direction of their teacher. This is done to cultivate good feeling in the school, and save the teacher from a constant tax for articles for such pupils.

All school fees, all contributions or assessments in money, fuel, &c., must be collected by the regular school authorities, and not by the teacher. And no service can be required of the teacher in or about the school, and he can engage in no employment, which will lower his dignity, or weaken his influence.

All public teachers are regarded as public functionaries, and are exempt from liability to military service in time of peace, and from all local and capitation taxes, or if taxed, an equivalent is allowed in an increase of salary.

Whenever any division of land belonging to a parish, or town, is made, a sufficient quantity shall be allotted to the schoolmaster for a vegetable garden, and for the feed of a cow. Wherever the right of common exists, the teacher shall share in its benefits.

Schoolmasters who become temporarily infirm, are entitled to an allowance from the school moneys provided for the support of their schools. And when permanently disabled, are entitled to an annual allowance from the income of funds provided in each province for this purpose, and for the support of the widows and children of teachers, who entitle themselves to such provision for their families, by a small annual contribution from their salaries.

Teachers, who show themselves entitled to promotion to the direction of Normal Schools, are enabled to travel both in Prussia, and other countries, for the purpose of extending their knowledge of the organization, instruction and discipline of schools.

A valuable ordinance passed, in 1826, and renewed in 1846, requires the director of a seminary to travel about, once a year, and visit a certain part of the schools within his circuit. He makes himself acquainted with the state of the school, listens to the instruction given, takes part himself in the same, and gives to the teacher such hints for improvement as his observation may suggest. The results of his yearly visits he presents, in the form of a report, to the school authorities of the province. This occasional visitation is very useful in clearing up the dark corners of the land, correcting abuses, and giving an impulse, from time to time, to teachers, who might otherwise sink into apathy and neglect. To render the efficacy of the seminaries more complete, it is provided that at the end of three years after leaving the seminary, the young teachers shall return to pass a second examination.

By an ordinance in 1826, it is provided: "To the end, that the beneficial influence of the seminary may extend itself to those teachers already established, who either require further instruction, or who in their own cultivation and skill in office do not advance, perhaps even recede; it is required that such teachers be recalled into the seminary for a shorter or longer time, as may be needful for them, in order, either to pass through a whole methodical course, or to practice themselves in particular departments of instruction."

he foregoing excellent and thorough regulations have not
a dead letter in the ordinances of the government, but are
lly followed in the practical operations of the system, will be
lent from the testimony of Mr. Kay, an intelligent English
s to the education, social position, and professional standing
nary school teachers of Prussia, as well as from the accounts
ow of several of the best normal schools in different depart-
he kingdom:

> ny travels in different provinces of Prussia, I was in daily communica-
> ıg teachers. I had every opportunity of observing the spirit, which
> he whole body, and of hearing the opinions of the poor respecting
> ound a great body of educated, courteous, refined, moral, and learned
> laboring with real enthusiasm among the poorest classes of their coun-
> found them wholly devoted to their duties, proud of their profession,
> ther by a strong feeling of brotherhood, and holding continual con-
> gether, for the purposes of debating all kinds of questions, relating to
> ement of their schools. But what gave me greater pleasure than all
> observe in what esteem and respect they were held by the peasants.
> ot a Prussian peasant to find fault with the schools, he will tell you, in
> v good the school is, and how learned the teachers are. I often heard
> t panegyrics bestowed upon them by the peasants, showing in the
> nner how well their merits and their labors were appreciated.*
>
> not but feel, how grand an institution this great body of more than
> chers was, and how much it was capable of effecting; and, when I
> e happy condition of the Prussian peasantry, I could not but believe, I
> of the fruits of the daily labors of this enlightened, respected, and
> herhood.
>
> parochial ministers and parochial teachers depend, far more than we
> to allow the intelligence, the morality, and the religion of the people.
> co-operation of these two important and honorable professions is nec-
> he moral progress of a nation. The religious minister acts upon the
> eacher on the young. The co-operation of the religious ministers is nec-
> cure the success of the teacher's efforts; and, on the other hand, with-
> nest aid of the teacher, the fairest hopes of the religious minister are
> ed in the bud.
>
> t educate the child, if we would reform the man. But, alas! this
> a labor, requiring a long, persevering, careful, intelligent, and most
> dling. It were much better left alone, than to be attempted, so as to
> ist, or to embitter early associations, or to render virtuous and ennobling
> gusting throughout after-life. On the teacher depends the training of
> an's child, for poor parents have, unhappily, too little spare time to
> to perform the greatest duty of a parent. And thus, as the character
> tion mainly depends upon the training of the children, we may safely
> , such as our teachers are, such also will be our peasantry.
>
> ential is it, then, to the moral welfare, and therefore to the political
> f a nation, that the profession of the teachers should be one, insuring
> satisfaction of its members, and commanding the respect of the country!
> cher's station in society ought to be an honorable one, or few learned
> en will be found willing to remain long in the profession, even if any
> an be induced to enter it; and it is much better to be without teachers
> than to leave the training of our children to men of narrow minds,
> d passions, or meagre intelligence. The Prussian government has fully

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ese remarks were written, the course of public events in Prussia has given a very
proof of their correctness. To the National Assembly, which met in Berlin in
e people of the provinces elected no fewer than eight teachers as representa-
this striking proof of the people's respect for the ability and high character of
n.

recognized these truths, and has, therefore, done all within its power, to raise the character and social position of the teachers as much as possible. As these efforts have been heartily seconded by the provincial governments and the people, the result has been most remarkable and satisfactory.

The first exertions of the government were wholly devoted to the improvement of the intellectual and moral character of the profession, and to the increase of its numbers. They determined to make the name of "teacher" an honor, and in itself a guarantee to every parent of the character and attainments of the man who bore it. To attain this end, they denied all access to the ranks of the profession to any but those who proved themselves worthy of admittance. No person can be a teacher in Prussia, or in any part of Germany, France Austria, Switzerland, or Holland, until he has passed a very severe and searching examination, and until he has produced testimonials from those well acquainted with him, of the irreproachable nature of his moral life and character. This examination, which includes both intellectual and moral qualifications, is conducted by able and impartial men, among whom are to be found the candidate's religious minister, the professors of the normal college at which he was brought up, and at least one of the educational magistrates of the county of which he is a native. He who passes the ordeal is allowed to be a teacher, whether he was educated at a normal college or not. The ranks of the profession are open to all educated and moral men, wherever or however they were educated; but educated and moral they must prove themselves. It is not, then, to be wondered at, that the men, who are known to have satisfactorily passed this scrutiny, are regarded by all their fellow-countrymen with respect and consideration, and as men of great learning and of high character.

This once attained, the next great efforts of the government were directed to the improvement of the social position of the teachers. The government placed them under the immediate protection of the county courts. They also made a law that no teacher, who had been once elected, whether by a parochial commitee, or by trustees, or by private patrons, should be dismissed, except by permission of the county magistrates. This protected the teachers from the effects of the mere personal prejudices of those in immediate connection with them. They then defined the *minimum* of the teachers' salaries, and this *minimum* they have ever since been steadily increasing.

It is absolutely necessary, that my readers should not connect their preconceived ideas of an English village schoolmaster with the learned and refined teacher of Prussia. They might just as well think of comparing the position and attainments of the vast majority of our teachers with those of the scholars of our universities, as of comparing those of our schoolmasters with those of the Prussian teachers. I felt, whenever I was in the company of a Prussian teacher, that I was with a gentleman, whose courteous bearing and intelligent manner of speaking must exert a most beneficial influence upon the peasantry, among whom whom he lived. It was, as if I saw one of the best of our English curates performing the duties of a schoolmaster. I never saw any vulgarity or coarseness, and still less any stupidity or incapacity for their duties, displayed by any of them.

The Protestant teachers of Germany occupy situations of importance in connection with the religious ministers and religious congregations. They fulfill several of the duties of our curates, clerks, and organists. In both Romanist and Protestant congregations, they lead the choir and play the organ. They act, too, as clerk; and when a Protestant minister is indisposed, and unable to conduct public worship, the parochial teacher officiates in his stead, reads the church service, and sometimes also preaches. The musical part of public worship, in both Romanist and Protestant churches and chapels, is always directed by the parochial teacher. The small salary, which they receive for the performance of these duties, serves to increase their incomes; but what is of much more importance is, that this connection of the teachers with the religious congregations and ministers serves to bind the religious ministers and teachers together, to lesson the labors of each by mutual assistance, and, above all, to raise the teacher in the estimation of the poor, by whom he is surrounded, and thereby materially to increase the effect of his advice and instructions.

It was very curious, and pleasing, to observe the effects of the intercourse of

ned and excellent body of men with the peasantry during the last
. I do not hesitate to say, that, at the period of my visit to Prussia, I
efore seen so polite and civilized, and seemingly intelligent, a peas-
t of Prussia. Were a stranger introduced into some of the lowest
quite convinced he would not believe he saw peasants children before
were generally so clean and neatly dressed, and their manners were
ood, that I was several times obliged to ask the teachers, if I really
dren of the poor before me. The appearance of the girls was particu-
ng; their dress was so respectable, their manners was so good, their
sing their hair showed so much taste, and their cleanliness was so
o one, who had not been informed beforehand to what class they
ould have believed them to be the children of the poorest of the people.
orders of Germany are so much more refined than our poor, that the
the rich very often attend the primary schools, while the chil-
e trades people and middle classes almost invariably do so. The
ts know that their children will not come into contact with any coarse-
hat the teacher is certain to be an educated and refined gentleman.
ng of the children of the higher and lower orders tends to civilize the
ill more, and to produce a kindly feeling between the different ranks
But the primary cause of the great and ever-increasing civilization
sian peasantry is, undeniably, their contact with their refined and intel-
ers. For, whilst the clergy are laboring among the adults, the teachers
inging under the influences of their own high characters and intelli-
he younger portions of the community.

hers in Prussia are men respected by the whole community, men to
lasses owe the first rudiments of their education, and men in whose
d character, and high respectability, both the government and the peo-
emselves deeply interested. In birth, early recollections, and associa-
are often peasants; but in education and position they are *gentlemen*
nse of that term, and acknowledged officers of the county govern-
here are more than 28,000 such teachers in Prussia. This great pro-
s, as I shall presently show, a means, by which an intelligent peasant
o raise himself into the higher ranks of society, as the expenses of
or admission into the profession are borne by government. But, as the
candidates for admission is consequently always large, the government
possible precaution, that only such shall be chosen, as are in every
alified to reflect honor upon the profession, and carry out its objects in
ffective manner. And so well satisfied are the teachers with their
at, although their pay is often but poor, yet it rarely happens that any
is profession to seek another situation. They are contented with their
even when it affords only a bare living, as it always confers a station of
ty and honor, in direct communication with the provincial govern-
made the most careful inquiries upon this subject, and can speak with
idence upon it. I was in daily communication with the teachers from
ntered Prussia, and I tested the truth of what they told me, not only
ing their statements together, but also by many inquiries, which I made
cational counsellors and government officers in Berlin. Next to Dr.
n, one of the head counsellors of the Minister of Education, the gen-
whom I am most indebted for information on this subject are Counsellor
Chief Inspector of Prussia, who is employed by the Minister on partic-
ns of inspection in all the provinces of Prussia; Professor Hintz, one
ng professors in Dr. Diesterweg's normal college; Dr. Hennicke, the
f the normal college at Weissenfels; Herr Peters, a teacher at Bonn;
teachers at Cologne; several of the teachers at Berlin; and several of
rs at Elberfeld. From these gentlemen, and many others, I gathered
ing information: When a boy is intended for the teachers' profession,
s in the primary school, until he has completed the whole course of
nstruction, *i. e.* until he has learned to write and read well, and until
the principal rules of arithmetic, the outlines of the geography and
his native country, a little natural history, and the Scripture history.
wledge he does not generally acquire before he is fifteen years of age.

From the age of fifteen to the age of eighteen, before which latter age a young man can not be admitted into any normal college, the education of young candidates, who are the sons of towns-people, is different to the education of those, who are the sons of country people.

The young candidates for admission into the teachers' profession, who are the sons of towns-people, enter at fifteen into the classes of the *superior public schools* of the town, in which schools a number of endowed places are always reserved for poor boys, who have distinguished themselves in the primary schools. The education given in these schools is of a higher character, than that given in the *primary* schools. It comprehends mathematics, and the rudiments at least of the classics, besides lectures in history, physical geography, and drawing. They remain in these *superior public schools* until their eighteenth year, when they can seek admission into a normal college. The young candidates for admission into the teachers' profession, who are the sons of poor country people, do not enjoy all the advantages which the children of towns-people possess, as there is seldom a superior primary school in their neighborhood, in which they can continue their studies, after leaving the primary school. If the son of a peasant aspires to enter the teachers' profession; after leaving the primary school, he engages the parochial teacher to give him instruction in the evenings, attends the teachers' classes in the mornings and afternoons, and assists him in the management of the younger children. He continues to improve himself in this manner, until he has attained the age, at which he can apply for admission into a normal college.

There are, however, a great many schools in Prussia, established for the purpose of preparing the sons of the peasants for admission into the normal colleges. These preparatory schools generally belong to private persons. Every young person admitted into them is obliged to pay a small fee for his education there. This fee is generally very trifling, but is still sufficient to prevent the sons of the poorest peasants entering them; and, consequently, these latter, if they live in a country village, are obliged to content themselves with the evening lessons given by the village teacher, and with the practical knowledge gained by attending his classes in the mornings and afternoons. But it is always possible for the peasants' children, with industry, to prepare themselves, by the aid of the village teacher, for admission into a normal college. Of these latter admirable institutions for the education of teachers I shall hereafter speak at length; suffice it here to say, that there are between forty and fifty of them in Prussia, supported entirely by the state, and under the direction and surveillance of the provincial committees called Schulcollegium. There are five or six normal colleges in each province, some of which are set apart for the education of the Romanist, and the others for that of the Protestant teachers. Each of them is generally put under the direction of a priest or of a protestant minister, according as it is intended for the education of Romanist or Protestant teachers, and is provided in the most liberal manner, with every thing necessary for the education of the young students. The education given in them is nearly gratuitous; no young man being called upon to pay for any thing, but his clothes and his breakfast, whilst, in many cases, even this trifling charge is paid for the poor student out of the college funds.

All young men who aspire to the office of teacher in Prussia, and who aspire to enter a normal college, when the yearly vacancies take place, are obliged to submit to an examination, conducted by the professors of these colleges, in presence of the educational counsellors from the county court. No young man can enter the examination lists, who has not produced certificates of health, and freedom from all chronic complaints, or who has a weak voice or *any* physical defect or infirmity. None but picked men are selected as teachers in Prussia. The examination is very severe and searching. For, as there are always a great number of candidates for admission into each college, and as the favored candidates are only chosen, on account of their superior abilities, the competition at the entrance examinations is very great.

The subjects of this examination are, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, singing, chanting, and the Scripture history.

The young man, who has just obtained admission into a normal college in Prussia, and whose education as a teacher has only just begun, is much better educated, *even at the commencement* of his three years' education in the college,

any of our teachers are, when they enter upon the performance of
n the schools, and when their education is considered to be completed!
superior, therefore, in intellectual acquirements, the Prussian teacher
has completed his collegiate course, I need not observe. When the
is concluded, as many of the most promising of the candidates
as there are vacancies in the college; and, after a strict exam-
been made into their characters and previous life, each successful
required to sign an agreement, promising to officiate as a teacher, after
college, for a number of years, equal to those during which the gov-
ucates him gratuitously in the college. They are then admitted, and
uired to provide themselves with clothes, and to pay about 3*l.* per
l the other expenses of their education, maintenance, &c., are, as I
fore, borne by the state. They remain in these colleges two or three
less than two, or more than three. Here they continue the studies
had previously followed in the primary and superior schools. They
selves in writing, arithmetic, history, geography, and Scripture his-
ceive a careful education in the physical sciences, and particularly in
and botany. In some of the normal colleges, the young men also
and the modern languages. Besides this, they *all* learn the violin,
nd piano-forte. I have seen as many as a hundred violins, three
three piano-fortes in one normal college. They also continue the prac-
ing and singing, which they had commenced in the village schools;
e college is situated in the country, and intended for village teachers,
learn gardening and agriculture. I became acquainted in Bonn, with
f the *poorest* school in the town. He could speak French very tol-
ell as a little English; he was acquainted with many of our first wri-
ew the rudiments of the Latin language, in addition to the necessary
of a teacher.

overnment and the people are not satisfied that, because a teacher has
gh one of these training establishments, he is therefore fit to under-
anagement of a village school. Far from it. When the normal
e is finished, the young aspirants are obliged to submit to another
, which is conducted by the professors of the college in the presence
llor from the provincial schulcollegium, the educational counsellor of
court, and a delegate from the Roman Catholic bishop, or Protestent
nt of the county, according as the school is for Romanist or for Prot-
nts. These different personages *ought* to be present, but I was assured
eral, only the educational counsellor of the county court assisted at the
. At its conclusion, if the directors and professors have been satisfied
nduct of the young men, during their residence in the college, and
son to doubt the excellence of their moral character, and the ortho-
eir religious belief, the young candidates receive diplomas marked
o the manner in which they acquitted themselves in the examination,
or "3," and signed by the director and professors, and by the mem-
provincial schulcollegium.

o obtain the diplomas marked "1," are legally authorized to officiate
without futher scrutiny, but those who only obtain those marked "2"
only appointed to schools for two or three years on trial, and at the end
e, are obliged to return to the normal college and undergo another
.

however, *necessary* that a young man should pass through a normal
rder to obtain a diploma enabling him to officiate as teacher. Any
has received so good an education as to enable him to pass the exam-
normal college, can obtain one, if his character is unimpeachable. By
atest proportion, however, of the teachers of Prussia are educated in
colleges. When they have obtained these diplomas, the county courts
m to such school committees as require teachers; and if these parochial
are satisfied with them, they are elected. In such a numerous body
the Prussian teachers, there are always numerous vacancies. The
colleges and students are so arranged, as to regularly supply that,
nd to be the average number of yearly vacancies.

The candidates who have obtained only the diplomas marked "2," or "3," hold their offices, as I have said, only provisionally; and, in order to be definitely appointed, are obliged, at the termination of their specified period of trial, either to obtain the approval of the local inspector, or to undergo another examination; and I was assured, that they are sometimes obliged to return three or four times to be examined, ere they can obtain a definite appointment; such care does the country take, that none but fit persons shall occupy this responsible position. When he is once appointed, however, the teacher is thenceforward a county and not a parochial officer. No person or set of persons in *immediate* connection with him can turn him out of his situation, without having first obtained the sanction of the county magistrates. After the parochial ministers and householders have once elected him, they have no power to deprive him of his salary or his situation. No one but the county magistrates of the union inspector, who, by living at a distance, are not likely to be affected by personal prejudices or parochial disputes, can interfere directly with the teacher, and should the latter deem the interference of even the inspector uncalled for, he can always appeal to the superior authorities, or even to the minister of education himself. The parochial committees have, however, the power of complaining of the teacher to the county magistrates, if they think he is acting unwisely or immorally; and such complaints always receive immediate and special attention. When any such complaints are made, the county court dispatches an inspector to examine into the matter, and empowers him, if he thinks the teacher worthy of censure, fine, or expulsion, to act accordingly. If, however, the teacher is not blameable, the inspector explains the matter to the parochial authorities, and effects a reconciliation between the parties. If the inspector should deem the teacher worthy of punishment, and this latter should be dissatisfied with the sentence, he can carry the matter before a justice of the peace; and if he is not satisfied with his decision, he can appeal to the provincial schulcollegium, thence to the minister of instruction, and thence, if he desires, to the king himself; of so much importance does the Prussian government deem it, to protect the teachers, and to raise their office in public opinion. I have mentioned that a Prussian teacher seldom leaves his profession; but that many change their positions. When a good and well paid situation falls vacant in any parish, an experienced teacher, who already occupies some worse paid situation in another parish, and who has obtained credit for his excellent school-management, is preferred by the school committee to the young adepts fresh from the normal colleges. On this account, the young men generally commence with an inferior position, and earn better ones, according as they manage the first they entered. It is evident, how important a regulation this is, as the teachers of the poorest schools are saved from becoming listless and dispirited, and are rendered earnest and industrious, in the hopes of bettering their situation. The country is, however, gradually improving the salaries of all the teachers. No village or town is ever allowed to *lessen* the amount it has once given to a teacher. What it has once given, it is obliged to continue to give in future. It may increase it as much as it likes, and the county courts have the power of interfering, and saying, "You have hitherto paid your teachers too little; you must augment the teacher's salary." This is only done, however, when it is known, that the parish or town is capable of increasing the school salaries and is unwilling to do so.

The importance of enabling the teachers to command the respect of the people, of rendering them independent of those in immediate connection with them, and of protecting them from ignorant interference and mere personal animosity, is so fully recognized in Prussia, that even when the school is endowed, and managed by trustees, these trustees, after having once elected a teacher, are not permitted to dismiss him, unless they can prove to the county court that they have sufficient cause for complaint. The teacher, elected by trustees, has the privilege of appealing to the minister of education in Berlin, against the act of the trustees and county magistrates, just as well as all the other teachers of Prussia.

The reasons which have induced the Prussian government to render the teachers, after their election, so independent of those in immediate connection with them appear to have been—

1st. Because the teachers of Prussia are a very learned body, and, from their long study of pedagogy, have acquired greater ability than any persons in the art

They are, therefore, better qualified than any other persons to construction of their children; but, if those persons who have never gogy could interfere with them, and say, "You shall teach it in this at, or else leave the parish," the teachers would often be obliged to ridiculous, inefficient method, merely to please the whims of pererienced in school management, and the enlightenment of the people be often considerably retarded.

use, if the parishioners or the parochial ministers had a right to turn cher, whenever he chanced to displease them, the teachers would able to, and would often suffer from, foolish personal dislikes, founded ground. They would thus lose their independence of character, by to suit their conduct to the whims of those around them, instead of act faithfully and conscientiously to all; or by being exposed to the pertinence of ignorant persons, who did not understand and appreue and importance of their labors; or by being prevented from acting ward the children, from fear of offending the parents; or by being nge to and flatter the ignorance, and even the vices, of those around d of being able to combat them; and they would thus generally, by of these ways, forfeit at least some part of the respect of the parents dren, and would, consequently, find their lessons and advice robbed of ir weight, and their labors of a great part of their efficiency.

reasons, the Prussian government endeavors to give as much liberty the teachers, and to fetter their hands as little as possible. In the ges they receive instruction in the different methods of teaching; and, each teacher is at liberty to follow whichever seems to him the best promote the growth of the intelligence of his scholars. It is felt, that liberty, a teacher would often work unwillingly, and that a disconwilling teacher is worse than none at all. In the choice of their books ns, the teachers are allowed an almost equal freedom. If a teacher which he thinks better calculated for instruction, than the one he has habit of using, he sends it through the inspector to the educational f the county court, who forward it to the schulcollegium for approval; as this is obtained, the teacher can introduce it into his school. There a great many books in each province, which have been thus sancout of these, every teacher in the province can choose whichever most. These school-books are, generally, written by teachers; and, saw of them, they seemed to evince a profound knowledge of the pedagogy. Until a book has been thus sanctioned by the schulcolleh has the management of the normal colleges and gymnasia of its can not be introduced into a parochial school.

hers are not assisted by monitors in Germany, as in Switzerland, England; and this I think a very great error. I have often been in Prussia, where the teacher had about one hundred children of different proficiency to instruct in the same class-room, without any assistance the consequence was, that while he was teaching one class, the others order, and making noise enough to distract the attention of the chilwere receiving instruction, as well as that of the teacher, who was while the teacher, instead of being able to devote his time to the higher instruction, and to the children, who more particularly needed his bliged to divide it among all, and to superintend himself the very ches of instruction; and this, too, at the sacrifice of the order and s school. When I represented this to the teachers, I was always Yes, that is true; but then we think, that a young monitor is unable he minds of the children under his care, and is consequently likely to uch injury." This is, no doubt, the result, if the teachers leave the f any of his children *entirely* to monitors; but he has no need to do ght to employ his monitors merely in superintending the more mechanf instruction, such as writing, and learning the alphabet, and also in order; he might then himself conduct the *mental* education of all the But this they will not do in Prussia; they are so afraid of injuring the ure of the children, that they positively throw away a very important means for the attainment of this end. In Switzerland, a very different course is pursued; the teachers are assisted in keeping order, and in teaching the more mechanical parts of instruction, by monitors, chosen from among their most advanced pupils. These monitors remain with the teacher, until they are of sufficient age to go to a normal college; they are paid, I believe, by the parishes, and are instructed by the teachers in the evenings. From among them, the young candidates for the vacant places in the normal colleges are chosen; so that the Swiss teachers have often been engaged in schools, and in school management, from their earliest years. Besides this advantage, the country is spared a great expense; for in Prussia, where they have no monitors, they are obliged to augment the number of their teachers very considerably; and I have found in a small school, which could have been very easily managed by one teacher and some well trained monitors, as many as three teachers, for each of whom good salaries had to be provided, as well as houses and gardens. Doubtless, it is much better to have experienced teachers, than young monitors; and hence it is that the town schools in Prussia are very much better than those of other countries, as the town committees can afford to engage a sufficient number of teachers; but in the poor country parishes this is not the case, and there it is, where the want of monitors is most severely felt, as a large school is often left entirely to the unaided care of a single teacher. But this very defect in the Prussian system arises from the great anxiety of the educational authorities, that the religious and moral education of the young should not suffer. Still I think it is a very great mistake; and I am sure that many schools I saw in Prussia suffer grievously from this regulation.

But it will be asked, how are the salaries of the teachers provided, and what is their amount? The regulations on this subject are particularly deserving of attention. The Prussian government clearly saw, that nothing could tend more strongly to nullify their efforts to raise the teachers' profession in the eyes of the people, than to leave the salaries of the teachers dependent, either on uncertain payments, or on private benevolence. To have done so would have been to destroy the independence of the profession.

The Prussian government, therefore, decreed that, however small and from whatever source the teacher's salary should be derived, its *amount* should always be *fixed* before his appointment, and that the payment should be *certain* and *regular*.

As I mentioned before, each succeeding teacher must be paid, *at least*, as much his predecessor received. The county magistrates have the power of obliging each town or parish to increase the amount of the salaries of their teachers, whenever they think the town or parish is paying too little, and can afford to pay more. These salaries are now wholly paid by the school or town committees, from the funds raised by local taxation. Before the late law, which made education gratuitous, they were derived, in part, from the school fees. But the amount of the salary did not, in any case, depend on that of the fees, nor was the teacher ever placed in the invidious position of being obliged himself to collect these monthly payments. They were always collected by a tax-gatherer, appointed by the village or town magistrate; and when they did not amount to the fixed salary, which the school committee had agreed to pay to the teacher, they were increased by a parochial rate, levied on the householders. In many cases, however, the schools are endowed, and for admission into these, no school fees were ever required. But where fees were required, and where a parent was too poor to pay them, the parochial or town authorities were always obliged, by law, to pay them for him. The following are the regulations, which define the *minimum* of the salaries of the Prussians.

Some of the country schools have each as many as three teachers; but the number of teachers in a country school in Prussia does not, generally, exceed *two;* and in many of these school, there is only one teacher. Where there are several, one is the head master, and the others are his assistants. The laws relating to their payment are as follows:

"The first teacher in a country school, or, if there be only one, then the single teacher shall receive, as his yearly salary and the perquisites of his office, at least:

1st. Free lodging.

2d. The necessary fuel for the warming of the school-room, and of his own dwelling-house and for his household economy.

e of land, as near as possible to the school, of from one to three
s large; the tillage and manuring of which are to be done at the
e parish.
hen garden behind his house, of not less than half a Prussian acre.
ecessary building for his little farming operations.
ummer pasture for at least two cows.
e bushels of rye meal, two cart-loads of hay, and two cart-loads of

. in money." [It must be remembered that 7*l.* 10*s.* in Prussia, is
much as 12*l.*, ($60,) in England, and that this is only the sum which
by law as the *legal minimum*, and by no means gives an idea of
salaries paid to the Prussian teachers.]
, garden, or summer pasture for his cows can not be provided by the
nty court must determine what equivalent in money must be given

third, &c., teacher in a country school must receive—
dging.
l necessary for warming his house.
oney, (or about 15*l.* in English value.)
s of the towns must receive—
dging and fuel.
t teacher should receive at least 40*l.* per annum, and the other
st 30*l.* per annum," in English values.
e regulations among some educational laws issued by the govern-
, for one of the provinces; but Dr. Bruggeman assured me, that
ere in operation for the whole of Prussia. The above emoluments
the teachers can receive according to law. The government is
his *minimum* considerably, and to increase the salaries throughout
erto many have been paid but poorly; very few, however, have
profession, or engaged in other occupations, as they are generally
position, and satisfied with it.
, a teacher of a primary school in Bonn, with whom I spent some
e, one day, "The Prussian teachers do not receive high salaries;
, with emphasis, "however little the salary of a teacher may be above
num, it is certain, and collected for him by the parochial authorities,
ing to trouble himself about it." The law, as I have mentioned,
requiring the payments of the salaries to be made with the utmost

see how invaluable, for any country, a great privileged class, like
ssian teachers, must be, especially when many of its members are,
chosen by the state from amongst the most highly gifted of the
and educated at the expense of the country. It is, in fact, for
, just what the Roman Catholic Church was, for Europe in the
t is a ladder, by which all the genius of the lowest orders may
suitable field of action. A young peasant boy of promising abili-
by the restless spirit, which so often characterizes youth of real
ious to better his position in the world, or to gain some sphere of
ngenial to his taste, than the farm-yard, or the workshop, finds in
cher's career open to him. If he can only distinguish himself in
ol, and pass the entrance examination of a normal college, he
ducation at no expense, and is then sure (if he conducts himself
guishes himself in the normal college) to obtain a teacher's place,
in immediate connection with the government, and to gain a very
tion, affording him the amplest field for the development and
talents. A clever peasant in Prussia, instead of becoming a
s a normal college, and becomes a teacher. There is no need for
nt to despond in Prussia, and say, "Here I am, endowed with
ne for another sphere, but shut out by doors, which can only be
golden key." Far otherwise. Free places are retained in the
poor boys, who wish to continue their studies; and from these
n enter either into the ranks of the Protestant or Romanist clergy,

or into those of the teachers; and, in the last case, without having any thing to pay for their education. It is easy to comprehend, how this tends to allay political strife and discontent. In our country, this is often occasioned, or, at least, increased, by some one or two clever individuals, who find themselves confined within a sphere, too narrow for their talents and energies, and who, by their own restless murmurs, arouse the dormant passions of their neighbors. The German governments have been wiser in their day than our freer countries. They have separated the fiery spirits from the easily excited masses, and converted them into earnest, active, and indefatigable fosterers of the public morality, and into guardians of the common weal.

In considering the salaries and privileges of the teachers, it must also be borne in mind, that they are exempt from taxation, and that they are free from all obligation to serve in the army, and to attend the yearly military exercises.

On the installation of a new teacher, the parochial or school authorities are obliged, either to send conveyances for the transport of his family and goods, or to pay the expenses of such transport, for any distance less than fifty English miles. But, if the teacher leaves his situation before the expiration of five years, he is obliged to repay to the local authorities the expenses of this conveyance.

Whenever a new teacher is introduced into a parochial school, his installation is a public ceremony, at which all the parochial authorities assist, in order to impress the people with a sense of the importance of his office and his duties, and to encourage among them a respect for him, without which his hopes of success in his labors must be necessarily very small.

The ceremony of installation generally takes place in the parochial church, where the new teacher is presented, by the religious minister, to the civil authorities, and to the inhabitants of the parish. The children, whose education he has to conduct, are always present at the ceremony.

The Prussian government feels that, unless it can render the profession honorable and worthy of men of high characters and attainments, all its attempts to raise the religious and moral tone of the education of the people will be ever unavailing.

I have not hitherto mentioned Prussian schoolmistresses, because there are but few; and because the regulations, with respect to their education, examination, and appointment, are precisely similar to those relating to schoolmasters. Among the Protestants of Prussia there are scarcely any schoolmistresses; the greatest part of the Prussian female teachers are Romanists, and for their education there are several normal colleges established in the Romanist provinces of Prussia. I inquired of the Romanist counsellor in the Bureau of Public Instruction in Berlin, whether it was not found difficult to retain the female teachers long at their posts, on account of their making such eligible wives, even for the farmers. But he assured me, that this was not the case, as far as their female teachers were concerned, as they form among themselves a body like the order of the Sisters of Charity, with this distinction, that instead of actually taking a solemn public vow of celibacy, it is generally understood among them, that they shall not marry, but shall devote themselves, during the remainder of their lives, to the duties of school management and instruction. In this respect the Romanists have a great advantage over the Protestants; for I found, in the Protestant cantons of Switzerland, just the same objection to the employment of female teachers, as that which is experienced among the Protestants of Prussia and of England, viz., that a young woman, who has been carefully trained in a good normal college, until she is twenty years of age, makes so good a wife for men, even in the middle classes of society, that she always marries, soon after leaving the college; and, consequently, that a much greater supply of students and colleges are required, in order to supply the constant vacancies, which occur in the ranks, and that the expenses of educating a sufficient number of female teachers are, therefore, too great in general to be supported, unless the students pay for their own education, which very few of the young women, who are desirous of being teachers, are able to do.

In the Romanist cantons of Switzerland, the Sisters of Charity conduct the education of the girls; and their schools are the best and most pleasing female schools I have ever seen. Herr Stiehl, one of the Protestant educational coun-

chief inspector of Prussia, confirmed all that the Catholic minister had
ad stated that, for the reasons above mentioned, the Prussian Pro-
ad it impossible to keep the female teachers long in their situations;
e expense of constantly educating fresh female teachers, to supply the
ose who married, was too great to be borne. The Prussians, how-
eral, prefer male teachers for the girls, *even where they can obtain*
that in nearly all the schools I visited, I found schoolmasters, and not
esses, instructing the girls' classes.

sians would ridicule the idea of confiding the education of the girls to
mistresses, such as those in our dame, and in most of our female
hey can not conceive the case of a parent, who would be willing to
child to the care of a person, who had not been educated, most care-
ligiously, in that most difficult of all arts, the art of teaching. They
a teacher *must* either improve and elevate the minds of his children,
re and debase them. They believe, that there is no such thing as
o come into daily contact with a child, without doing him either good
The Prussians know, that the minds of the young are never stationary,
in progress; and that this progress is always either a moral or an
e, either forward or backward; and hence the *extraordinary* expen-
ountry is bearing, and the *extraordinary* pains it is taking, to support
its training establishments for teachers.

to increase the feeling of union and brotherhood, which already
igh degree among the Prussian teachers, and in order to encourage
ewed exertions, and to diminish as much as possible, the feeling of
ich must always exist, in some degree, where an educated man finds
ed in a solitary country parish, surrounded by peasantry less culti-
himself, and cut off from the literary society, to which he had been
at the normal college, the government promotes the frequent holding
conferences, for the purpose of mutual improvement and encourage-
se conferences are held very often, over the whole of Germany,
, France, and Holland, and the benefits resulting from them are very
l. In Prussia, there are three kinds of such conferences, of which I
ve a short account. The first is that of the province. In several of
s of Prussia, all the teachers, both Catholic and Protestant, assemble
r, in some town, which has been agreed upon at their last meeting,
redetermined day. The duration of the meeting is different in dif-
; sometimes only for one, and sometimes for several days. Their
, are different. Sometimes it is for mutual instruction, whilst at
for pleasure. But, whatever be the *nominal* purpose of their
the real end of it is, to produce the feeling of association and brother-
is one of the strongest encouragements to isolated and single efforts.
hese yearly provincial assemblies, there is also another meeting of
ld monthly in every kreis or union. The principal ecclesiastical
school-inspector of the union summons and presides over it. This
nore especially intended for the purposes of instruction, than that of
. It lasts only one day; the teachers meet early in the morning,
again in the evening. They dine together at noon, and spend the
d afternoon in conferences and mutual improvement. They assemble
vn or village in the union on an appointed day, of which the union
ves them each notice some weeks beforehand. In the morning, they
one of the schools, or in some great room of the town. A class of
ken from one of the schools of the town, is assembled there. One of
s, generally one of the younger ones, is chosen by his companions to
hildren a lesson, on some subject of instruction in the primary schools.
r who is selected, gives the lesson before all the others assembled at
nce. When the lesson is ended, the children are dismissed, and the
eachers then begin to criticise the manner, in which the instruction was
each shows, how he thinks it might have been improved; and then a
ues on the merits of different methods of teaching and of different
hool management.

n of debating at the conferences, on methods of instruction, makes the teachers think, and stimulates them to inquire, how they can impart instruction in the most efficient manner. It makes them also eager to improve their manner of teaching, as each one fears to exhibit any ignorance of his profession, or any unskillfulness before his professional brethren, and desires to win their applause by his ability; and it makes them properly attentive to all the minutiæ of their profession, as well as to the more interesting studies connected with it.

I was present at one of these teachers' conferences. It was attended not only by the teachers from the primary schools, but also by professors from the superior schools and colleges, and was presided over by the director of a normal college. I do not think the importance of these meetings can be exaggerated. They are not only, as I have before said, a great encouragement to the isolated teachers; but they are a continual source of instruction and improvement to all in their most important duties. The teachers continue at these meetings the instruction they commenced at the normal colleges; they discuss all the new school-books that have appeared, all the new regulations that have been issued, all the new plans that have been tried; and they inform one another of the progress of their different districts. In France and South Germany, they have so strongly felt the importance of these meetings, that the expenses of the teachers in traveling to them are borne by the government; and in Holland and the Duchy of Baden, the government inspectors assist at them, and join in the debates. In some parts of Switzerland, also, they are very well organized; and in the canton of Neufchâtel, I remember to have read a number of a very interesting periodical, which was published after each conference, and which contained several most instructive and very able papers, which had been read at the previous meeting of the village school professors.

Besides those conferences, which I have already mentioned, there is still another kind, which is held in Prussia. This is when a parish is very large, and contains several schools and many teachers. In such cases, the chief ecclesiastical authority summons a meeting of all the parochial teachers once a month, for purposes of mutual instruction, similar to the meetings in the unions. Sometimes the clergyman himself gives them a lecture on religious instruction, and, at other times, they debate among themselves on questions of pedagogy, or criticise one another's methods of teaching; but in all cases the object of the meetings is the same, viz., mutual encouragement and improvement. As the religious ministers preside at these parochial and union conferences, they have an opportunity of addressing the teachers on their religious duties, and of giving them advice and instruction respecting the true end they ought to keep in view in their school lessons, and on the care they ought to take to keep this end constantly in sight.

The ministers also give the teachers advice and counsel respecting the manner, in which their religious lesson ought to be given, in order the more strongly to impress the minds of their scholars with the serious import of the truths of the Scriptures; and they have the opportunity of reminding the younger teachers of the particular parts of the Scripture, which they ought more particularly to lay before the different classes of their children, and of the method of religious instruction which they ought to pursue. But it is impossible to detail all the great and obvious advantages, which result from these meetings of the clergy and the school professors, or to enumerate the different subjects of reflection, debate, and conversation, which are started and discussed at them. They are the supplements, so to speak, of the normal colleges, and serve, in an admirable manner, to carry forward the education, which the young aspirants to the teachers' profession commenced at these institutions, and to continually revive through after-life the knowledge imparted in them.

I have now shown how the government provides for the education, appointment, payment, protection, encouragement, and continual improvement of the teachers.

It remains for me to show, how the Prussian government secures the teacher from all fear of being disabled, by sickness or old age, from pursuing his labors or providing for his family. It would be a great disgrace for a profession, such as that of the Prussian teachers, were the fate of a superannuated teacher to be the same as in our country; where there is in general no other refuge for such a person, than the workhouse or the hospital. Doubtless, if Prussia did not feel

sted than we do, in the protection of this most important class of pub-
, it would not care what became of them, when they were too old or
o attend the schools. But Prussia fully appreciates the value of the
er teachers, and has a sincere respect for them, and a lively concern
elfare. The government has felt, that to cast off and forsake all the
thful teachers, when they could work no longer, would be to disgust
body, to break off the sympathies which unite them to their profes-
o shut out of it many noble spirits. It has, therefore, most carefully
ainst these results, by the regulations, which I shall now proceed to

her, who has been definitely appointed, becomes unable to fulfill the
s station, either through the utter breaking up of his health, or by old
thorities who appointed him, whether they were the county court, the
commission, or the parochial school committee, are obliged to pension
remainder of his life.

ion must, according to law, amount to at least one-third of his former
Whether the committee settles more than this upon a teacher or not,
on the manner in which he has labored, whilst he was yet able to do
n the resources which the committee finds at its disposal. When,
e teacher is not so far incapacitated for exertion as to be unable to do
out only so far as to require assistance, the local committee or county
allowed to dismiss him on a pension, but is required to provide him
, who must be chosen from among the young men, who have been
the normal colleges, and who have obtained certificates of qualifica-
r duties.

ool, to which a teacher has been appointed, is supported by or belongs
proprietor, this latter is obliged to pension the teacher, when incapac-
s duties by illness or old age; and if the school is one of royal found-
ourt of the county, in which it is situated, must pension him. The
overnment, although professedly a military state, has shown itself *as*
ply interested in the welfare of its teachers, as in that of its soldiers,
who disown the appellation of a military people, take greater care of
than of our teachers.

he provisions for the pensioning of the superannuated teachers, there
aw in force in Prussia, which relates to the future provision of the
orphans of deceased schoolmasters, and which is deserving of equal

union a society is formed, of which the principal ecclesiastical author-
nion is the president, the object of which is to provide for the support
ws and orphans of deceased teachers. The regulations of these soci-
a little, I believe, in the different provinces; but it will not be neces-
o examine them so minutely, as to show what is peculiar to each. I
ttempt to give a brief sketch of them, as I have collected it from the
have been framed for some of the eastern counties of Prussia, and
ve now before me.

finitely appointed teacher, whether in town or country, must become
f the society established in his union, for the assistance of the widows
s of deceased teachers.

acher must pay a small entrance fee on his becoming a member, and
small yearly sum. The amounts of these sums are in all cases con-
n certain limits, and can neither fall below nor rise above them. On
of the yearly subscription paid by the teacher depends the value of
, which his widow or children will be entitled to receive, after his
the director of the union society. There are generally three different
arying in value, for either of which the teacher may subscribe at his
ion, but for one of which he must pay his annual subscription. If he
first and best, his widow or children will receive the greatest pension
e society, and this is always very much more than the interest of his
culated on life averages, would have entitled him to receive, as the
e not commercial enterprises, but charitable institutions. To enable
s, therefore, to meet the calls upon their treasuries, it is often neces-

sary, that they should be assisted in some extraordinary manner, and this is done by collections made in the union churches by the ecclesiastical superintendent, and by assistance granted by the county courts. When a teacher dies, however soon it may be after his having commenced his subscription, leaving a wife or children to young to support themselves, they receive the pension for which their father had subscribed. The wife continues to receive it for life, and the children until they are old enough to earn their own subsistence, or until they attain the age of fourteen years; for before this time they are not generally able to leave the parochial schools and commence labor. If he leaves several children, the pension is paid, until the youngest attains this age. But if the widow marries again, she loses her pension, as it is supposed, that her second husband is able to support her.

By these means, the Prussian teacher is freed from all anxiety, about the fate of his family after his death, and is less tempted than he would be, if their after maintenance depended upon his own small savings, to divert his mind from his important duties, by the desire of making a provision, sufficient to support them, if he were to die before they were able to support themselves. Besides these great advantages, the regulations, which I have described, tend to raise the profession in the estimation of the poor, who thus see, that the government considers not only the teachers themselves, but that their wives and families also, are deserving of its especial protection. They also render the situation of a teacher more desirable for literary and clever young men, who find it an honorable station suited to their tastes, and freed from those anxieties, against which a literary man is often the least fitted to contend.

There is still another cause, which contributes, in a very powerful manner, to foster the feeling of brotherhood between the Prussian teachers. I refer to the teachers' journals.

These journals are periodicals, which appear weekly or monthly, and contain all the latest news and statistics, of the progress of education in all the countries of the world; original articles on different questions relating to the general management of schools, and the different methods of instruction; accounts of particular schools distinguished by some particular excellence or other; biographies of distinguished teachers and professors; and reviews of all the latest works on pedagogy.

They are published for the whole of Germany and Switzerland; and their articles are contributed by inspectors, teachers, and professors from all parts of Germany. The stimulus they give to education is almost incalculable. By their means, all the most recent improvements in pedagogy are rapidly disseminated; the efforts of the most able teachers are published; the labors, the plans, and the success of particular teachers are described; the character of all the new laws and regulations is discussed and explained; the honors and rewards bestowed on eminent and successful teachers and friends of education are made known; and in this way, a feeling of generous emulation is excited among all the members of this great body, spread as it is over the Austrian empire, Bavaria, Wirtemberg, Baden, the German dukedoms, Saxony, Prussia, Hanover, and the German cantons of Switzerland, which an Englishman would find it difficult to conceive. Each teacher, who takes in one of these journals, is reminded of the greatness of the brotherhood, of which he is a member; he is told by its pages, that over the vast and well-loved Germany, all the members of this brotherhood are laboring as himself, each in his respective locality; that their efforts are not without success, and not without the sympathy of their country; that he himself participates in this sympathy, and is an object of interest to the whole of Germany; and when he lays his paper down, after its perusal, it is with a feeling of pride in his profession, of exultation in the thought of his labors, and of confidence in his ultimate success.

That the teachers are deeply interested in their profession, no one can doubt, who has had an opportunity of observing how the German press is teeming with works on pedagogy, published by and intended expressly for the teachers.

I happened to be in Leipsic, during the great fair of 1846, at which time all the new books, which had appeared in Germany within the past year were exhibited; and I was very much astonished, at the great number of works on vhich had appeared in that year. There were treatises on different lating to the management of schools and the instruction of the young; particular schools in different parts of Germany; obituaries of chers and professors, who had ceased their labors in this world; biog- others still engaged in their important avocations; and all kinds of ks properly so called. The tables of the publishers were literally h books issued expressly for the schools and teachers, and generally nembers of the profession.

vs, also, how much is being done at the present time in Germany to science of pedagogy.

hus described the character and social position of the great profession teachers, I shall now show what education the law requires each of ve received, before it allows him to engage in the work of instruction; be remembered, that no person, whether he be a foreigner or a native, o act as a teacher of any public or private school in the kingdom of til he has passed a very rigid examination in all the subjects of school and has obtained a diploma from his examiners, stating that he is fit her.

f the different provinces of Prussia the government has established five colleges, intended expressly for the education of the teachers. Each esses at least one, nearly all have two of them. They are all endow- y the state and partly by private benefactors. The education given in rfectly gratuitous; *at least* one-half of the cost of boarding each borne by the state, or defrayed out of the funds of the college, on the l scale; and every thing is provided, which can possibly contribute to on of the training and education of the students.

pt has been made to give the education of the teachers any political normal colleges are widely dispersed throughout the country. They close to the homes of the students, and at great distances from the overnment; so that the patriotic sentiments naturally resulting from origin of the young teachers are not weakened; nor are their local ever interrupted by the young men being removed, during the period of tion, into a distant and uncongenial political atmosphere. Neither vernment undertake the actual direction of these great and important nts. Each of them, with only two or three exceptions, is put under a religious minister of the sect, for the education of whose teachers it

province, there are, as I have before stated, five or six of these insti- each county, there are generally two. If the inhabitants of a county ed of Romanists and Protestants in pretty equal proportions, one of es is devoted to the education of the Romanist teachers, the other to Protestant. If nearly all the inhabitants of a county are of one faith, normal colleges are devoted to the education of the teachers of this the teachers of the minority are educated in one of the colleges of a county. There are only two normal colleges in Prussia, where nd Protestant teachers are professedly educated together. The direc- e great institutions are chosen from among the clergy. The director nist college is chosen by the Romanist bishop of the province, in which is situated; and the director of a Protestant college is chosen by the l authorities of the province, in which the college is situated; subject, both cases, to the approbation of the Minister of Education in Berlin, e power of objecting, if an unsuitable or injudicious choice is made.

mal colleges are thus put under the supervision of the religious bodies. nment itself directs their management. It recognizes the importance lleges having a decidedly religious character; and, at the same time, ation given in them being of the most liberal kind. On the one hand, it intrusts the direction of them to the clergy; and, on the other hand, the right of examining them, so as to have the power of interfering, e *secular* education of the students should be injudiciously curtailed. or of each college appoints all the professors and teachers. The relig- ters have, therefore, a considerable share of the direction of these institutions. Their character is decidedly religious, and a union between the clergy and the teachers is effected, which is productive of the best possible results.

The students remain in these colleges about three years. They live in the institution. Almost the whole of the expenses of their education, and of their board, are paid out of the funds of the college.

If a young man wishes to enter into one of these normal colleges, he need not travel far from home. Within a day's journey of his own village, is to be found one of the normaloo lleges of his country. If he is able to pass the preparatory examination, and to procure carefully attested certificates of character, he is received as an inmate of the college on a vacancy occurring. During the time of his sojourn there, and during the continuance of his arduous studies, he is in constant communication with all his old associates and friends, and constantly revisits the scenes of his boyhood His sympathies with his people are thus preserved intact. None of his old connections with his village are broken; he remains the son, the brother, and the companion of the peasants. His life in the normal college is very simple and laborious; the change from its arduous discipline and duties, to those of a village teacher, is a change for the better. The teacher is not rendered discontented with his simple village life, by being pampered in the college; the laborious and self-denying discipline of the college teaches him, how to combine the simplicity of the peasant, with the learning of the scholar. It is the design of these Prussian colleges to send forth simple-minded, industrious, religious, and highly educated peasant teachers; and not affected pedagogues, or mere conceited and discontented gentlemen. Nobly, most nobly, have they fulfilled their mission! Prussia may well be proud of her 30,000 teachers.

Each one in his village, and in his district, is laboring among the poor, not so much to teach them their A, B, C, and mere school-room learning, as to enable them to think; to show them the present, as well as the future advantages of manly virtue, and to explain to them, how much their own prosperity in life depends upon their own exertions. This is education.

Oh! if we could once be taught to recognize the vast benefits, which education *must* confer upon the people, if we could once be taught to understand, the meaning of the term, and the nature of the undertaking, it would not be long, ere each one of our counties would possess its two normal colleges, and each one of our villages its educated teachers and its school. We have the power, but not the will. We do not understand the vast importance of education to the people.

It has been said, by persons desirous of screening our own shameful neglect of the people's education, by the abuse of the great efforts of our neighbors, that the teachers of Prussia have been, in reality, nothing more than the paid servants of an absolute power, intended to prepare the minds of the people to passive submission to a despotic government. Nothing can be more shamefully and ignorantly false than this assertion.

I have a right to speak on this subject, as I have seen more, perhaps, of the Prussian teachers, than any of my countrymen; and of this I am certain, that the sympathies of the Prussian teachers have always been notoriously with the people, and not with the government. The Prussian government has always, in fact, bitterly complained of the too liberal spirit which actuates the teacher's profession, but without effect; the body is popular in its origin, its position, its education, and its sympathies. Many of the warmest friends of constitutional progress in Prussia have always been found among the teachers; and, it is a fact, well worthy of consideration, that liberal and constitutional ideas never made so rapid a progress in Prussia, at any period of its history, as they have done since the establishment of the present system of education. I believe, that the teachers and the schools of Prussia have been the means of awakening in that country that spirit of inquiry and that love of freedom, which forced the government to grant a *bonâ fide* constitution to the country.

An evidence of the free spirit, which has pervaded the Prussian teachers, may be derived from the fact, that the Prussian government found itself compelled, in 1831, to address a circular order to the teachers, in which, after reciting that the government had been informed, that some of the teachers had converted their class-rooms into political lecture rooms, and had selected the political topics of the day as the subject of remark, if not of instruction, it prohibited such subjects being introduced into the lessons by the teachers, and ordered the inspectors to prevent the teachers perverting their schools to such objects as these.

The very fact, that such a prohibition was found necessary, proves that my own observations were correct. If further proof were needed, it might be told, that the people have elected many teachers as their representatives in the different Diets; thus proving their esteem and respect for the able instructors of their children.

As nearly all the expenses of the young teacher's education in the normal colleges, are borne by the country at large, and not by himself, it has been thought advisable to require some kind of guarantee, that those, who are educated in the colleges, will really, when their education is completed, labor as teachers in the village schools, and not merely use their college education as a preparation for other more lucrative situations.

In order, therefore, to secure an adequate return for the expenditure of the country, it has been decreed by the government:

"1st. That every young man, who is received into a normal college, shall bind himself, by an agreement, to remain for three years, after leaving the college, at the disposition of the government; and during such three years, to take any situation, which the authorities of the district, in which the normal college is situated, should offer him, or to which they should wish to translate him.

"2d. That if he does not comply with this condition as soon as required to do so, he shall repay to the normal college the cost of the education and maintenance, which had been gratuitously given to him."

Every year, at a fixed period, of which public notice has been previously given in the local papers, the directors and professors of each of the normal colleges hold a public meeting, at which the magistrates of the county and the religious ministers are present, for the purpose of examining all young men, who are desirous of obtaining admission into the normal college for the purpose of being educated as teachers.

These examinations are open to all young men, even of the poorest classes, many of whom enter the lists, as almost all the expenses of the collegiate course are, as I have said, borne by the state, or defrayed out of the funds of the college.

Every competitor at one of these examinations must forward to the director of the college, a fortnight before the examination takes place—

1. A certificate signed by his religious minister, and certifying that his character and past life have been moral and blameless.
2. A certificate from a physician, certifying his freedom from chronic complaints, and the soundness of his constitution and health.
3. A certificate of his having been vaccinated within the last two years.
4. A certificate of his baptism, (if a Christian.)
5. A certificate, signed by two or more teachers, of his previous industrious and moral habits, and sufficient abilities for the teacher's profession.

On the day appointed, all the young candidates, who have complied with the preceding regulations, and who have attained the age of seventeen, are examined at the college, in the presence of the county magistrates, and of the religious ministers, by the directors and professors of the college, in all the subjects of instruction given in the highest classes of the primary schools; i. e.,

Biblical history,
The history of Christianity,
Luther's catechism,
Writing,
Reading,
Arithmetic, (mental and common,)
Grammar,
Geography,
German history,
Natural history,
The first principles of the physical sciences,
Singing,
The violin.

When the examination is concluded, a list is made out, in which the names of the young men are inscribed in order, according to the proficiency and ability they have displayed in their examination. As many of the highest in the list are then elected, as students of the college, as there are vacancies that year, occasioned by the departure of those who have left the college to take the charge of village schools.

Those who are elected, as well as their parents or guardians, are then required to subscribe the agreements I have before mentioned; and the successful candidates are then admitted as residents of the college for two or three years, according to the length of residence required by the rules of the college.

The time of residence in Prussia is generally three, and never less than two years. The time of residence in the normal colleges in the neighboring kingdom of Saxony is always FOUR years. When the young men have been once admitted into the normal college, their education as teachers commences. It must however, be borne in mind, that the Prussian teacher, when he first enters a normal college, has generally before that period enjoyed a much better education, and knows much more then, than an English teacher does when he undertakes the management of a school. Unless he did, he would not be able to obtain admission into a normal college. When he leaves the normal college, he has had a better general education, than nine out of every ten men who leave our Universities.

The education of a good teacher is a very difficult matter, and, principally, for this reason: Nothing, but a very high education can fit an individual for the proper performance of that most delicate, difficult, and important duty, the education of a child. Great learning, even when accompanied with good principles, is often apt to *unfit* its possessor for the humble duties of a teacher's life; the mingling, living, and conversing with, and the advising the peasants; the laborious and often unnoticed and unrequited labors of the school-room; the constant and wearying struggle with sloth, ignorance, filth, bad habits, and immorality; with the opposition of the prejudiced, and the ignorance of the uneducated parents; with the misrepresentations of his scholars; and with the neglect of the community. The learned teacher has all this, and more than this, to contend with. He finds himself in such a situation, having received an education fitting him for a very different sphere of action, deserving much higher emolument, and inclining him to seek a very different kind of employment. Such a man, if he has received *only* an intellectual training, is sure, sooner or later, to fly from his profession, and seek out an employment more congenial to his newly acquired tastes, or, if he remains at his post, he remains discontented, and, by discontent, totally unfitted to perform his duties aright.

Now the Prussian and the German normal colleges have avoided this difficulty in the following manner: They give the teachers a very high intellectual education, but they give them something more: they educate *their habits* also; they accustom the young men, whilst they are in the colleges, to the most laborious and most menial duties; to combine high intellectual endowments with the performance of the humblest duties of a peasant's life; and to acquire high literary attainments whilst living on a peasant's diet, wearing a peasant's dress, and laboring harder than any peasant is ever called upon to do. When, therefore, the students leave the colleges, they find their positions, as village teachers, situations of less labor, of less real drudgery, and of more comfort, than those which they formerly occupied in the colleges. By these means, their sympathies for the labors and simplicity of the class, from which they sprung are cherished, whilst the labors of the class-room are rendered light and easy by comparison with the labors and daily duties of the normal college. Thus, the college does not engender discontent, but braces the young teacher to his work, and prepares him to encounter it with pleasure.

The education given in the normal colleges of Germany and Switzerland may then be said to consist of two distinct parts:

1st. The intellectual training.

2d. The industrial training.

1st. THE INTELLECTUAL TRAINING.—This, I have before said, is of a very high character. I have shown what knowledge a young man must have acquired, before he can gain admittance into a normal college. This is only the *groundwork* of his education in the college. During his three year's residence he continues his studies in—

Biblical history.
The history of Christianity,
Luther's catechism,
Reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar.

r enters upon a new and regular course of study in—

ry,
sciences,

Pedagogy,
Singing and chanting,
Drawing,
The violin, piano-forte, and organ.

se subjects of study, the young men generally learn the Latin and
guages, and very often the English also. I met several teachers who
ee. These latter acquirements are not, however, required; but with-
er, a young man could not obtain a teachers diploma, or officiate in
s a teacher, nor would he be accepted by the inhabitants of a parish.
two years of a teacher's residence in the normal college are devoted
sively to these studies; the third year is divided between them and
actice of teaching in the model schools, connected with the college.
irst practice as teachers, under the eye and direction of an experi-
sor, who is able to show them how to impart knowledge in the best
how to manage and direct all the minutiæ of school discipline. Those
e, that any one is fit for the performance of these duties without any
show themselves as ignorant of the duties of a teacher, as they are
ut the improvement and happiness of the people.

e subjects of instruction I have noticed, the law requires, that each
l be taught how to distinguish poisonous herbs; what are, and how
antitodes of different poisons; how to treat the more common acci-
laborers are liable to meet with; and what remedies and treatment
e of in cases of scalds, burns, and bites of mad dogs. The teachers
l to impart this instruction to the scholars of the primary schools, so
erson may be capable of acting for himself and without delay, in
n daily occurrence, and where a short delay in administering a simple
y remedy often proves fatal.

er is thus qualified in simple cases to act as the village doctor; and in
ges, where no surgeon or medical adviser lives within many miles,
s medical knowledge proves invaluable, both to himself and to the
g whom he dwells. As the uneducated always esteem a man much
xhibits a knowledge of the practical arts and appliances of life, the
use of which they can understand, than for any reputation he may
ning, of the use of which they have generally but a vague idea; so
l knowledge of the teachers tends greatly to raise them in the estima-
spect of their poorer neighbors, and by this means to give greater
l effect to their advice and teachings.

Industrial Training.—This consists, generally, of the performance
rdinary household work, preparing the meals, taking care of the
rtments, pruning the fruit-trees; and cultivating, in the lands always
he colleges, the vegetables necessary for the use of the household.
nts are required to rise at five o'clock, and to retire to rest by ten at
nd in turn to wait upon the professors and on one another; to ring
classes, &c.; to pump the water required for the daily use of the
t; to go to the post-office for letters; and to teach in the class-rooms
e school attached to the college.

e of every day is occupied by the regular routine of these duties, and
e at the lectures of the principal and the professors. There is no
time, and therefore, no time for the formation of idle or immoral
e college course is a laborious, severe, but healthy course of life;
the mind, the body, and the habits, to the exertions of the future
s a more than Spartan discipline.

r, during its continuance, the young men are rigorously examined, to
they are making such progress in their studies, as to afford satisfac-
or hoping that, at the end of their course of study, they will be able
gaining a diploma or certificate of competence. When it is found
man is incapable, or idle, and that his progress is not such as to insure
success in the final examination for diplomas, he is removed from the
ake room for some more worthy recipient of the national bounty,
more worthy candidate for the teachers' profession.

This training continues, as I have said before, for *three* years in most of the Prussian colleges. During the whole of this time the young men are urged and stimulated to the greatest exertion, by the knowledge that, at the end of it, they will have to submit to a severe and searching public examination, conducted in the presence of the educational magistrates of the county, of the religious ministers, and of the professors of the college; and that on the results of that examination, and on the manner in which they succeed in it, their admission into the teachers' profession, and their future course of life, entirely depend.

Unless they can pass this final examination creditably, they can not become teachers; and even if they do pass it, the value of the situation, to which they may be afterward appointed, depends entirely on the degree of efficiency and diligence which they display at the examination.

Every year at a certain period, fixed and publicly announced beforehand, a meeting is held in each normal college, by the director and professors of the college, and by the religious ministers and the educational magistrates of the country, at which all the young men, who have been three years in the college, are summoned to attend, for the purpose of being examined in all the subjects, in which they have received instruction, during their residence in the college. This examination generally lasts two days.

The young men who have completed their third years' residence in the college are then examined in—

1. Biblical history,
2. The history of Christianity,
3. Luther's Catechism,
4. Reading, writing, and arithmetic,
5. Grammar,
6. Geography, local and physical,
7. History,
8. Natural history,
9. Botany,
10. The physical sciences,
11. Pedagogy, and class management,
12. Singing and chanting,
13. Drawing,
14. The organ, the piano-forte, and the violin.

According to the manner, in which each student acquits himself in this examination, he receives, as I have before shown, a diploma marked "1," "2," or "3," or else is rejected, *i. e.* refused admittance into the teachers' profession, on the ground of incompetency.

If a student has succeeded so well in his examination, as to gain a diploma marked "1," he is qualified to take a situation in any school as principal teacher, and to enter at once into the highest and most lucrative situations in the country. This diploma is a guarantee to all to whom he shows it, that he is a young man of good ability, high character and great attainments, and fit to be intrusted with the education of any children of any class in the community.

If a student obtains a diploma marked "2," or "3," he can not, as I have before shown, for the first two or three years, take any situation as principal teacher in a school, but can only officiate as assistant teacher until, by further study and diligent application, he has qualified himself to attend another of the general annual examinations, and has there succeeded in obtaining one of the first diplomas. Those students who obtain the diplomas marked "3," are obliged to return *the following year*, to the college examination, and, if they do not give proofs of having improved themselves, in the interim, in the branches of education in which they were deficient, they are generally, deprived of their diplomas altogether.

Any person, whether he has been educated at a normal college or not, may present himself at one of them, at the time when the great annual examination is held, and may demand to be examined for a diploma. If he shows a requisite amount of knowledge, and can produce all the certificates of character, health, &c., which are required of the other students at their entrance into the normal college, he may, equally with the rest, obtain his diploma, and afterward officiate as a teacher.

But no person without a diploma, *i. e.*, without having given to the country undeniable proofs of high character, well regulated temper, high attainments, and a thorough knowledge of the science of pedagogy, is permitted to officiate as teacher in Prussia.

The connection of a German teacher with the normal college does not, however, close when he has obtained a diploma marked "1," and when he has entered upon his duties as a parochial teacher.

The principal of the normal college is commanded by the laws, to pay at least, one yearly visit of inspection to each of the teachers, who have been educated in

The expense of these journeys of inspection, advice and encourage-
ie by the state, or rather, as indeed a great part of the expenses of
ollege itself, by the provincial magistrates. If on these tours of in-
perceives that any one or more of the teachers requires some further
r practice in any department of school instruction ; if he perceives,
er, has allowed his knowledge of any branch of instruction to lag
rogress of the science of pedagogy, or to grow dull from want of
if the teacher should himself require it, the principal is empowered
ie teacher for a few months to the normal college, and during the
l up his place with a young student, or with some young teacher, who
btained a situation. All the extra expenses, attendant upon this re-
r instance, the payment of the young substitute, as well as the keeping
r himself during his renewed sojourn in the college, are defrayed by
l government. The teacher's salary continues to be paid by the
ittee, and serves to support his family during his absence.

al college in Prussia is, so to speak, the home of all the teachers of
n which it is situated. They know they can always apply there for
they will always find friends there, ready to sympathize with them.
r them assistance ; and that the director and professors understand
iculties, and are always able and willing to aid them in obtaining a
the superior authorities. The college is thus the protector and the
e teachers ; it is their refuge in all troubles ; it is the central point
etings and reunions ; and it is the place, from which they can, at all
very kind of necessary information, respecting the various objects
th their profession. They can see there all the best and newest
different branches of pedagogy ; all the lately improved apparatus
s for school instruction ; and all the more recently adopted methods
They can obtain information there about the general progress of
general, and of the different arts and sciences in particular ; about
nds and associates ; and about the character and efficiency of partic-
chools, and methods of instruction.

peak too highly of these great and liberal institutions. The spirit in
ave been conceived, is so liberal ; the way in which they have been
o munificent ; their tone and teaching are so truly healthy and patri-
e so free from the ignorant cant of dogmatism and from the narrow
g of pedantry ; their discipline is so severely moral and so invigor-
domestic life is so simple, laborious, and happy in its arrangements ;
so entirely in unison with the religious institutions of the country,
can visit them without profound satisfaction.

chools or teachers' seminaries in Prussia, are divided into
ivate, superior or chief seminaries, (*Haupt Seminaire,*) and
or small seminaries, (*Neber, or nebeusen Seminaire.*) By a
ry was originally understood such seminaries as were com-
nized according to the requirements of the laws. After-
were distinguished by the fact, that a special commission of
was appointed for them, to which commission the director
acher belonged. But by recent regulation, a commission for
e is appointed to the small, and even the private, as well as
rior seminaries. They differ now only by the number of
in a few instances, the smaller seminaries require a shorter
nd train teachers exclusively for country schools. Private
re encouraged, because the annual graduates of the public
an not yet supply the annual vacancies in the schools created
ithdrawal, and dismission. In addition to the seminaries in-
following table, there are five institutions for female teachers,
lin, Kaisersworth, Munster, Paderborn and Marienweider.

TABLE II.—LOCATION AND NUMBER OF PUPILS OF NORMAL SCHOOLS, IN 1846.

Province.	Regency District.	Place where located.	No. of Pupil Teachers.	No. of Masters and Assistants.	For what Sect designed.	Date when founded.	No. of Free Places.	No. of Pupils assisted.
Prussia,	Königsberg,	Königsberg,	28	4	P.	1809	30	
		Braunsberg,	53	5	C.	1810	20	10
		Eylau,	70					
	Gumbinnen,	Angerberg,	38	3	P.	1829		
		Karalene,	70	0	P.	1811	25	
	Danzig,	Marienburg,	53		C. & P.	1814		46
	Marienwerder,	Graudenz,	96	6	C. & P.	1816		59
Posen,	Posen,	Posen,	100	10	C.	1804	18	70
		Paradies,	78			1838		
	Bromberg,	Bromberg,	30	4	P.	1819		30
		Trzemessno,	15	2	P.	1829		
Brandenburg,	Potsdam,	Berlin,	34	3	P.	1830		
		Potsdam,	98	1	P.	1748		
	Frankfort,	Neuzelle,	120	10	P.	1817	10	88
		Alt-Döbern,	104	8	P.		22	24
Pomerania,	Stettin,	Stettin,	50	4	P.	1735		50
		Kammin,	18	2	C.	1840		
		Pyritz,	15	2	P.	1827		
	Cöslin,	Cöslin,	60	5	P.	1806		60
	Stralsund,	Stralsund,	31					
Silesia,	Breslau,	Breslau,	195		C.	1765		58
	Oppeln,	Ober-Glogau,	150	10	C.	1815		
	Liegnitz,	Buntzlau,	135	8	P.	1816		
Saxony,	Magdeburg,	Magdeburg,	65	5	P.	1790		24
		Halberstadt,	49	4	P.	1778		12
		Gardelegen,	27			1821		
	Merseburg,	Eisleben,	20	3	C.	1836		
		Weissenfels,	68	4	P.	1794		23
		Zeitz,	8					
	Erfurt,	Erfurt,	103		C. & P.	1820		
		Mühlhausen,	6					
		Heiligenstadt,	32					
Westphalia,	Münster,	Langenhorst,	36	3	P.	1830		
	Minden,	Petershagen,	34	3	P.	1831		
		Büren,	80	5	C.	1825		
Rhine,	Arnsberg,	Soest,	42	4	P.	1818		36
	Cologne,	Brühl,	100	7	C.	1823		87
	Düsseldort,	Kempen,	101	7	P.	1840		30
		Meurs,	96	8	P.	1820		
	Coblentz,	Neuwied,	36	4	P.	1816		30
	Trier,	Treves,			C.			
	Aix-la-Chapelle,							

Prior to 1846 there were two seminaries at Breslau; in that year the Protestant seminary, with 130 pupils, was closed, and the pupils were provided for in two new institutions, one at Löwen, and the other at Heinau. The Small Seminary at Zeitz, was abolished in 1846, and those at Stettin, Pyritz and Kammin, were consolidated into a Chief Seminary at Stettin. The Seminary at Potsdam, is to be transferred (in 1849) to Köpnick, in the neighborhood of Berlin.

REGULATIONS

OF THE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF LASTADIE AND PYRITZ,

IN PRUSSIA.

owing Regulations of two of the best small (nebeusen) Normal
taken from M. Cousin's "*Report on the State of Public Instruc-*
of the States of Germany, and especially of Prussia." The author
them with some remarks on this class of Normal Schools in
t is no longer true that all of the smaller seminaries are private
nts.

l Normal Schools are almost all private establishments, but the
aids and watches over them, without subjecting them to the
ity it requires of its great schools.
l Normal Schools differ, generally, from the large, not only in
of pupils, which is much smaller, but above all as being nurser-
ge schoolmasters for the very poorest parishes. This is their
ct; this it is which gives them so peculiar a character, so pro-
ity. The great schools, it is true, furnish masters for the coun-
as for the towns; and their pupils,—those at least who receive
z, or exhibitions,—are for many years at the disposal of the gov-
ich sends them where it likes; a right which, from the well-
r of the Prussian government in making all public servants work,
sure it exercises. But in every country there are parishes so
ne would hesitate to send a schoolmaster of any eminence to
; and yet it is precisely these miserable villages which stand in
t need of instruction to improve their condition. This need,
nall Normal Schools are destined to supply. They labor for
nd backward villages. To this their whole organization, their
r discipline, are to be directed. Unquestionably, the great Nor-
s of Prussia are entitled to the highest respect; but never can
neration enough for these humble laborers in the field of public
who, as I have said, seek obscurity rather than fame; who de-
lves to the service of poverty with as much zeal as others to the
riches, since they toil for the poor alone; and who impose re-
every personal desire and feeling, while others are excited by all
nts of competition. They cost scarcely any thing, and they do
d. Nothing is easier to establish,—but on one condition, that we
rs and pupils capable of the most disinterested, and, what is more,
scure devotion to the cause. Such devotion, however, can be
l kept alive by religion alone. Those who can consent to live
ice of men who neither know nor can appreciate them, must keep
steadfastly fixed on Heaven: that witness is necessary to those
o other. And, accordingly, we find that the authors and direct-
small schools are almost all ministers of religion, inspired by
Christian love, or men of singular virtue, fervent in the cause
education. In these humble institutions, every thing breathes
harity, ardor for the good of the people, and poverty. I shall lay
a description of two;—one hidden in a suburb of Stettin, and
the village of Pyritz in Pomerania.
has a large Normal School, instituted for the training of masters

for the burgher schools. An excellent man, Mr. Bernhardt, school-councilor (*Schulrath*) in the council of the department, was the more powerfully struck by the necessity of providing for the wants of the country schools. He founded a small Normal School for this sole purpose, and placed it not in the town, but in a suburb called Lastadie; he laid down regulations for its government, which I annex nearly entire.

Small Primary Normal School of Lastadie, near Stettin.

1. This school is specially designed for poor young men who intend to become country schoolmasters, and who may, in case of need, gain a part of their subsistence by the labor of their hands.

2. Nothing is taught here but those things necessary for small and poor country parishes, which require schoolmasters who are Christians and useful men, and can afford them but a very slender recompense for their toils.

3. This school is intended to be a *Christian school*, founded in the spirit of the gospel. It aspires only to resemble a village household of the simplest kind, and to unite all its members into one family. To this end, all the pupils inhabit the same house, and eat at the same table with the masters.

4. The young men who will be admitted in preference, are such as are born and bred in the country; who know the elements of what ought to be taught in a good country school; who have a sound, straightforward understanding, and a kindly, cheerful temper. If, withal, they know any handcraft, or understand gardening, they will find opportunities for practice and improvement in it in odd hours.

5. The school of Lastadie neither can nor will enter into any competition with the great Normal Schools completely organized; on the contrary, it will strive always to keep itself within the narrow limits assigned to it.

6. The utmost simplicity ought to prevail in all the habits of the school, and, if possible, manual labor should be combined with those studies which are the main object, and which ought to occupy the greater portion of the time.

7. The course of instruction is designed to teach young people to reflect, and by exercising them in reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing, to put it in their power to instruct themselves, and to form their own minds. For the humblest peasant ought to be taught to think; but to enlighten him, to make him a rational and intelligent being, does not mean to make him learned. "God willeth that all men be enlightened, and that they come to the knowledge of the truth."

8. The instruction ought to have a direct connection with the vocation of the students, and to include only the most essential part of the instruction given in the great Normal Schools.

9. The objects of instruction are—religion, the German language, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing. To these are joined the first elements of geometry, easy lessons in natural history, narratives drawn from national history (particularly that of Pomerania), and geographical descriptions. The principal object, and the foundation of all education, is religion, as learned from history and the Bible. The principal books are the Bible, the psalter, and the catechism. The school of Lastadie will also strive to excite and cherish in its pupils a love of nature, and to that end will cultivate a taste for gardening and planting.

10. In treating of all these subjects, the pupils must be trained to speak in pure and accurate language; for after the knowledge of religion and of nature, there is nothing of which the children of peasants stand so much in need, as to learn to express what they know with simplicity, truth, and accuracy.

11. The students know enough, when they speak, read, and write well; when they can produce a good composition in the German tongue; when they can calculate with facility and with reflection, and when they sing well; they know enough when they are thoroughly versed in the Bible, when they possess the most essential notions of the system of that universe which they have constantly before their eyes, of that nature in the midst of which they live: they have attained much, when they are Christian, rational, and virtuous men.

12. The period of study is fixed at two years. The first year the pupils learn what they are hereafter to teach to others; besides which, they assist at the lessons the masters give to the children of the school annexed to this small Normal

second year the future teacher appears more distinctly, and from
thing is more and more applied to practice. They continue the
practice teaching, and at the end they receive a set of rules, short
derstand, for the management of a school of poor country children.
chool of Lastadie is joined a school of poor children, in which the
e an opportunity of going over what they have learned, by teach-
and of exercising themselves in tuition according to a fixed plan.
ists of a single class, in order that the students may see how a
poor children should be composed and conducted, and how all the
e kept employed at once.

ber of pupils is fixed at twelve. The pecuniary assistance they
pend on circumstances. The instruction is gratuitous. Six pupils
om. The master lives on the same floor. They take their simple
meals together. Servants are not wanted. The pupils do the
use.

lessons begin and end with prayers and psalmody. It rests with
x the hours of devotion (founded chiefly on the Bible and the book
vell as their number. So long as the true spirit of Christianity—
by charity—shall pervade the establishment, and fill the hearts
of pupils, the school will be Christian, and will form Christian
his spirit of faith and of charity will be productive of blessings to
the mass of the nation.

ot, therefore, be necessary to lay down minute regulations; but
training must be combined as much as possible with instruction.
leth, the spirit quickeneth." But what will it not require to im-
establishment with the true spirit of Christianity, so that masters
devote themselves with their whole hearts, and for the love of
dren of the poor?

wishes to be admitted into this establishment must not be un-
r above twenty years of age. He must bring the certificates of
e authorities of his parish, and of the physician of the circle, as
conduct and the state of his health. He must, moreover, have
knowledge as is to be acquired in a well-conducted country school,
ory, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing. Those who join to
ents the principles of piano-forte or violin playing, will be pre-
ndidates for admission give notice to the director, and are exam-
mbers of the departmental authorities who have the care of the

no public examination. The examination on quitting is likewise
he school-councilors of the department, and the certificates of
nded on this examination, according to the gradations 1, 2, 3, and
y the departmental authorities.

placing of the pupils, it is desirable that they should work some
nt masters, in order that they may gradually acquire the neces-
and confidence, and may become well acquainted with children,
habitants of villages. Under this supposition, the age of admis-
onveniently fixed at sixteen; and this arrangement would be a
aged schoolmasters who are become burdensome to themselves
rishes.

r attention is paid to singing and to horticulture; as means of
nimating the public worship of God, and the general course of a
f providing the pupils with an agreeable recreation, and, at the
eful occupation; and, further, of combating the grossness of mind
te prejudices to which uneducated husbandmen are prone.

students attend divine service in the church of Lastadie on Sun-

ations must not exceed four weeks for the whole year: they are,
e autumn, and at Christmas.

blishment has no other revenues than what it owes to the bounty
of public instruction. These funds are employed,—
ining the poorest students.
nifying the assistant masters of singing and gardening.

3. In paying for the school tuition.
4. In paying the expenses of lodging the students.
5. In lighting and warming the school-room and the two lodging-rooms.
6. In extraordinary expenses.

The expense of the meals taken at noon and evening, in common, is also chiefly defrayed from these grants; the students, however, contribute a little from their own means.

The school of Lastadie pays the head master from its own resources.

May this establishment (concludes Mr. Bernhardt), which owes its existence to such fervent charity, not be deprived of that blessing, without which it can do nothing!

Assuredly there is not a virtuous heart which does not unite its prayers with those of the worthy and benevolent councilor.

The second small Normal School of this description was founded in 1824, in honor of Otto, bishop of Bamberg, who introduced Christianity into Pomerania, having baptized 4000 Pomeranians in 1124, near the fountain of Pyritz. When the minister of public instruction granted the license for its establishment, he made it a condition that the students should be instructed in agriculture, not merely as a recreation, but as essential to their destination; that they should be bound to study gardening, the cultivation of fruit-trees, and of silk-worms. The special superintendence of this house is intrusted to the pastor of the place. The regulations are as follows:—they resemble those of Lastadie in many respects, but go into great detail, and are perhaps still more austere as to discipline.

Rules of the small Normal School of Pyritz, in Pomerania.

I.

1. The purpose of this endowment is to give to every pupil the training and instruction suitable for a good and useful country schoolmaster: this, however, can only be done by the union of Christian piety with a fundamental knowledge of his vocation, and with good conduct in the household and in the school.

2. Piety is known—
By purity of manners;
By sincerity in word and deed;
By love of God and of his word;
By love of our neighbor;
By willing obedience to superiors and masters;
By brotherly harmony among the pupils;
By active participation in the pious exercises of the house, and of public worship;
By respect for the king, our sovereign, by unshaken fidelity to our country, by uprightness of heart and of conduct.

3. A thorough knowledge of the duties of a teacher are acquired—
By long study of the principles and elements;
By learning what is necessary and really useful in that vocation;
By habits of reflection and of voluntary labor;
By constant application to lessons;
By incessant repetition and practice;
By regular industry and well-ordered activity; according to this commandment, "Pray and work."

4. Good conduct in the house and the school requires—
A good distribution and employment of time;
Inflexible order, even in what appears petty and insignificant;
Silence in hours of study and work;
Quietness in the general demeanor;
Care and punctuality in the completion of all works commanded;
Decent manners toward every person and in every place: decorum at meals
Respect for the property of the school, and for all property of others;
The utmost caution with regard to fire and light;

ss of person and of clothing;
y in dress, and in the manner of living; according to the golden rule,
ng in its time and place. Let things have their course. Provide
st in the sight of all men."—Rom. xii. 16, 17.*

II.

e pupils inhabit one house and one room; for they must live in union,
ne family of brothers, loving one another.
hole order of the house rests on the master of the school; he lives in
f the pupils; he has the immediate superintendence of them, of their
d of their labors. He ought to be to those under his care what a
Christian family is in his household.
ponsible for the accounts of the establishment, the registers, the re-
quarterly examinations, and for the formation of the necessary lists.
special care of the provisions, the rooms, the library, the furniture.
nsible to the school-administration for good order in every department.
dest and most intelligent of the students assists the master. He is
master's assistant. He must take care—
ry one in the room under his care rises and goes to bed at the ap-
ment;
ody, without the master's permission, leave the house, smoke, or carry
the passages or the loft;
one wantonly injure the windows, doors, or furniture, or throw any
f the windows;
utmost cleanliness be observed in the sitting-room, the passage, and
-room;
clothes, linen, books, &c., be in their places;
oise be made in going up and down stairs, or in going to the chil-
l.
special business to help his companions in the preparation of their
ear them repeat, to prepare the exercises for the master, and to as-
far as he can in all his business. He ought to be to his fellow-students
l elder brother is to his younger brothers and sisters. He is chosen,
er's recommendation, by the school-committee.
umbler sort of household work, such as cleaning and putting in order
dusting the furniture, fetching water, cleaving wood, &c., is done by
who serve a week in rotation. The time of service is prolonged by
e master, in case of negligence.
der of the day is as follows:—
at five, in summer at half past four in the morning, at a given signal,
ls must rise, make their beds, and dress.
our after rising, that is, at half past five in winter, and five in summer,
ls must be assembled in the school-room. The assistant first pro-
morning benediction, and each pupil then occupies himself in silence
any repetitions stand over from the preceding day, they must be
After this, breakfast.
, as well as in summer, the lessons begin at six o'clock, and last till a
re eight. Then the students go with their master to the children's
hed to the Normal School, where they remain till ten, either listen-
ing in teaching some small classes; or they may be employed in their
at home.
employments succeeds an hour of recreation, and then an hour's les-
stablishment.
the students assemble in the master's room, where they find a frugal
me meal, consisting of vegetables, meat, and fish, at the rate of two
shillings) a month.
which remains, till one o'clock, may be passed in music, gardening,
g.

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appen to have the French version of the Bible. The texts as quoted by M. Cousin
with those in our version. Ver. 11, is rendered by Luther, *Schicket euch in die Zeit.*
ves to the time; which is not given in our version. The next clause above, I find
version nor in ours.

In the afternoon, from one till three, while the master is teaching in the town school, the pupils accompany him, as in the morning. From three till five, lessons.

The succeeding hours, from five till seven, are, according to the seasons, employed in bodily exercises, or in the school-room in quiet occupations. At seven they assemble at a simple cold supper.

From seven to eight they practice singing and the violin; then repetitions or silent study till ten, when all go to bed.

Two afternoons of each week are free, and are usually spent in long walks. The time from four to six, or from five to seven, is devoted to the practice of music.

On Sundays or holidays all the pupils must attend divine service in the church of the town, and assist in the choir. The remainder of these days may be passed by every one as he pleases: in the course of the morning, however, the students must write down the heads of the sermon (the text, the main subject, the distribution), and in the evening must give an account of the manner in which they have spent the day.

Every evening, as well as on the mornings of Sundays and holidays, a portion of time is spent in meditation in common.

A few Sundays after the setting in of winter, and after the festival of St. John (May 6th), the students partake of the Lord's Supper, in company with their masters.

Every student, from the time of his admission, must solemnly engage (in token of which he gives his hand to the master and signs his name) to follow the rules of the house, which may be summed up in these three principal maxims:—

1. Order in behavior and in work, combined with the utmost simplicity in all things; to the end that the students who belong to the poorer classes, and whose destiny it is to be teachers of the poor, may willingly continue in that condition, and may not learn to know wants and wishes which they will not, and ought not to have the power of satisfying. For this reason, they must be their own servants.

2. As to the course of instruction, the repetitions must always be heard by the forwardest pupils. The pupils must be made, as much as possible, to teach each other what they have learned of the master, in order that they may perfect themselves in the art of teaching.

3. Piety and the fear of God should be the soul of their little community, but a true Christian piety, a fear of God according to knowledge and light, so that the pupils may do all to the glory of God, and may lead a simple, humble, and serene life, resigned and contented in labor and travail, according to the exhortation of the Apostle:

"Fulfill ye my joy, that ye be like-minded, having the same love, being of one accord, of one mind. Let nothing be done through strife or vain-glory; but in lowliness of mind let each esteem other better than themselves."—*Philip.* ii. 2, 3.

"And as many as walk according to this rule, peace be on them, and mercy!" —*Galat.* vi. 16.

I abstain from all comment on these two sets of regulations, which seem to have been dictated by the spirit of St. Vincent de Paule. The greater number of the small Normal Schools of Prussia are founded and governed in the same spirit. All rest on the sacred basis of Christianity. But beneath their simple lowly exterior we trace a taste for instruction, a feeling for nature, a love of music, which take away every vestige of coarseness, and give these modest institutions a character of liberality. Undoubtedly all this is the offspring of the national manners, and of the genius of Germany; yet Christian charity might transplant a good deal of it into our France; and I should esteem myself happy, if the regulations of the little schools of Lastadie and of Pyritz were to fall into the hands of some worthy ecclesiastic, some good curate or village pastor, who would undertake such an apostolic mission as this.

PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOL

AT POTSDAM.

owing account of one of the best primary Normal Schools of
abridged from the report of M. Stintz, the director of the
ent.

1. DIRECTION AND INSPECTION.

rmal School and its annexed school are placed under a director
l, subordinate to the royal school board of the province of Bran-
t Berlin, and to the minister of public instruction and ecclesias-
nedical affairs.

named authority lays down the principles to be followed in
as in all other public schools; exacts an account of all impor-
rs, such as the examination of the masters, and any change in
nental plan of the studies; and receives every year, through
n of the royal school board, a detailed report, prepared by the
the school.

ool board is charged with the special inspection of the Normal
must watch its progress, and from time to time send commis-
nake inquiries on the spot. It examines also and approves the
dies presented every half year, and decides on all questions
to the consistory.

ector should superintend the whole establishment, observe and
master and servants, make reports to the superior authorities,
ne correspondence, &c.

2. BUILDING.

rmal School, situated near the canal and the Berlin gate, is a
e two stories high, with a frontage of 127 feet, and considera-
uildings, which, joined to the main building, form a square
ch is a tolerably spacious court. The whole comprehends:
aily residence for the director or principal, and another for a

e apartments for three unmarried masters
partment for the steward and his servants, and sufficient con-
or household business and stowage;
ing-room for the pupils, which serves also for the writing and
lass;
rgan-room, in which the music lessons are given, the examina-
place, and the morning and evening prayers are said;
rooms for the scientific instruction of the pupils;
rooms for the classes of the annexed school;
rooms of different sizes, and two dormitories for the pupils;
infirmaries;
ash-house;
o cabinets of natural history;
naries, cellars, wood-houses, &c.

3. REVENUES.

nual income of this establishment amounts to $6000, which is derived from the state fund and the tuition of the pupils, both of the Normal School, and the annexed primary model school.

4. INVENTORY.

The establishment contains the following articles:

1. Things required in the economy of the house, kitchen utensils, tables, forms, &c.;
2. Sufficient and suitable furniture, consisting of chests of drawers, tables, forms, chairs and boxes, for the class of the Normal School, and the school for practice, and for the masters' rooms, &c. There is also for the poorer pupils, a certain number of bedsteads with bedding;
3. A considerable library for the masters and pupils, as well as a good collection of maps and globes for the teaching of geography;
4. A tolerably complete collection of philosophical instruments;
5. A collection of minerals, presented to the establishment by Councillor Von Turck;
6. A collection of stuffed birds, and other objects in natural history;
7. The instruments most required in mathematical instruction;
8. Complete drawing apparatus;
9. A very considerable collection of music;
10. A very good organ, a piano forte, seven harpsichords, and many wind and string instruments.

5. DOMESTIC ECONOMY AND MAINTENANCE OF THE PUPILS.

To support about eighty pupils, and to preserve cleanliness in the house, a steward has been appointed, whose duties are specified in a contract renewable every year.

The food of the pupils is good and wholesome, which is proved by the state of their health. Some parents think it needful to send their children eatables, or money to purchase them. They are wrong, for the children have no such want; on the contrary, so far from being advantageous, these presents only serve to take away their appetite at meals, and to make them dainty and gluttonous. The orphans, and those whose parents are too poor to send them any thing, are exactly those who are the strongest and healthiest.

The director is almost always present at meals, to be sure of the goodness of the food, and to prevent any irregularity in the serving up.

Sick pupils are sent to the infirmary, and are attended by the physician or surgeon of the establishment.

6. MASTERS.

There are six masters attached to this establishment in which they live, besides the director, who instructs in religion, in the principles of education, of training, of the art of teaching, and of the methods of study.

7. NUMBER OF PUPILS.

The number of pupils is fixed by the regulation at from seventy to eighty, and is now seventy-eight, of whom seventy-two live in the establishment; the other six have obtained a license to remain with their parents in order to lessen the expense of their maintenance.

This number is determined not only by the building, but also by the wants of the province. Brandenburg contains about 1500 masterships of primary schools, in town and country. Supposing that out of a hundred places, two become vacant every year, there will be at least thirty masters required for this province; but these places for the most part pay so badly, that they are compelled to be content with but moderately qualified masters, who, perhaps, have not been educated at a Normal School, and who sometimes follow some trade or handicraft. If, then, the Normal School contains seventy-eight pupils who form three classes, one of which

lly, it will furnish each year twenty-six candidates, which
the wants of the country.

VHAT IS REQUIRED OF APPLICANTS FOR ADMISSION.

ar, at Michaelmas, twenty-six pupils are admitted. Of these
—

ealth and freedom from all bodily infirmity. (Obstacles to
ould be, exceeding smallness of stature, short-sightedness, or
est;)
e of seventeen complete;
angelical religion;
l and religious spirit, and a conduct hitherto blameless;
disposition and talents, among which are a good voice and a

prepared for the studies of the Normal School by the culture
t and mind; to have received a good religious education
include a knowledge of the Bible and biblical history;) to be
; to know the grammar of the German language, of compo-
netic, the principles of singing, the piano forte and violin.
request for admission must be sent to the director, by June at
ccompanied with—
ficate of birth and baptism;
ol certificate, and one of good conduct;
e certificate, stating the condition of the young man or his
e a written declaration from the father or guardian, stating
hin which he can and will pay the annual sum fixed by law;
r (6*l.* 16*s.*)
tor enters the petitioners on a list, and in the month of June
es them, by letter, to present themselves at the examination
place in July or August.
nation is conducted partly in writing, and partly *viva voce.*
ns of ascertaining the acquirements of the candidates, and of
eir memory, their style, and their moral dispositions, an an-
rable is related in a clear and detailed manner, summing up
g the principal points, after which they produce it in writing,
ations and reflections.
examination usually includes only religion, reading, grammar,
cises, and arithmetic.
also examined in singing, the piano forte and the violin.
examination, the talents and merits of the respective candid-
scientiously weighed and compared, in a conference of the
he choice being made, it is submitted to the sanction of the
board, with a detailed report of the result of the examination.
d of some weeks the candidates are informed of the decision;
ion is announced, or the reasons which prevent it stated; with
e to give up their project entirely, or suggestions relative to
preparation.
itted candidate is bound to bring, besides his clothes and
ng which must be the Bible and the prayer-book used in the
nt, half a dozen shirts, six pair of stockings, a knife and fork,
ly, a bedstead with all requisite bedding.
bound to sign, on his entrance, the following engagement to
with the consent of his father or guardian.

E ENGAGEMENT WITH THE DIRECTOR TO BE SIGNED BY THE
PUPIL ON HIS ENTRANCE.

dersigned, N——— of N———, by these presents, bind my-
ably with the ordinance of the royal minister of public in-

struction, and ecclesiastical and medical affairs, dated February 28th, 1825, with the consent of my father (or guardian) who signs this with me, ... to place myself during three years after my leaving the Normal School, at the disposal of the king's government; and consequently not to subscribe any thing contrary to this engagement; or, in such case, to refund to the Normal School the expenses incurred by the state for my instruction, namely:

'1. Ten thaler for each half year passed in the Normal School, and for the instruction received in this period of time;

'2. The whole amount of the grants and exhibitions I may have received;

'Potsdam. the &c."

The applicant rejected, but not advised to choose another course, is summoned to a fresh examination the following year.

The number of applicants having been for some time past very great, the author of this report thinks it his duty to warn parents, (especially schoolmasters,) whose children do not evince talent and have not a decided taste for teaching, not to suffer them to lose the precious time which they might employ with much more success in some other career.

This respects chiefly the poor youths who can have no claim to the exhibitions, unless they give proofs of an extraordinary capacity, from which the state and society may derive a real advantage.

The Normal School is by no means designed for those who are unfit for any business, and think, if they can read and write, they are capable of becoming schoolmasters. This notion is so deeply rooted, that you hear fathers declare with all the simplicity in the world—"My son is too delicate to learn a business," or "I don't know what to make of my son, but I think of getting him into the Normal School." We reply to such, that the pupils of the Normal School must, on the contrary, be sound both in body and mind, and able to brave the toils and troubles of a career as laborious as it is honorable.

Much neglect unfortunately still exists on a subject which is of the highest importance,—the methodical preparation of these young men for the calling it is desired they should embrace.

A false direction is often given to their preliminary studies. A young man is believed to be well prepared for the Normal School, if he have passed the limits of elementary instruction, and if he have acquired a greater mass of knowledge than other pupils. It frequently happens, however, that candidates who come strongly recommended from school, pass the examination without credit, or are even rejected.

The most immediate and the most important aim of all instruction, is to train up and complete the Man; to ennoble his heart and character; to awaken the energies of his soul, and to render him not only disposed, but able, to fulfil his duties. In this view alone can knowledge and talents profit a man; otherwise, instruction, working upon sterile memory and talents purely mechanical, can be of no high utility. In order that the teacher, and particularly the master of the primary school, may make his pupils virtuous and enlightened men, it is necessary he should be so himself. Thus, that the education of a Normal School, essentially practical, may completely succeed, the young candidate must possess nobleness and purity of character in the highest possible degree, the love of the true and the beautiful, an active and penetrating mind, the utmost precision and clearness in narration and style.

Such above all things are the qualities we require of young men. If they have reached this state of moral and intellectual advancement by the study of history, geography, mathematics, &c., and if they have acquired additional knowledge on these various branches, we can not but give them applause; but, we frankly repeat, we dispense with all these ents, provided they possess that *formal instruction* of which we spoken, since it is very easy for them to obtain in the Normal at *material instruction* in which they are deficient.

vertheless necessary to have some preliminary notions, seeing ourses at the Normal School are often a continuation of foregone nd that certain branches could not be there treated in their whole they were wholly unknown to the young men when they enter- have already mentioned the branches they should be most par- prepared in; but this subject being of the greatest interest, we lude this chapter with some suggestions on the plan to be fol-

gion. To awaken and fortify the religious spirit and the moral s. For this purpose the histories and parables of the Bible are ıl. Frequent reading and accurate explanation of the Bible are . The pupils should be able to explain the articles of faith, and important duties, as laid down in the catechism. Many sen- ıole chapters and parables from the Holy Scriptures, hymns and ould be known by heart; they should be able to give answers st interesting points of the history of the church and the Reform-

o *general history*, there is no need of its being circumstantially ıdly known; but the young men should be able to refer with to those historical facts which may be profitably used to form to exercise and rectify the judgment, to infuse a taste for all ınd and noble, true and beautiful.

ometry (the study of forms) combined with *elementary drawing*, a basis for instruction in writing and drawing, and as a pre- or the mathematics; the other to exercise the hand, the eye and

riting. The copies by Henrich and Henning only ought to be ch, after long practice, give and preserve a beautiful hand, even ting fast and much.

ical Exercises. These ought to tend to produce in young arness and accuracy of ideas, justness of judgment, and, by con- precision and facility in oral and written explanations.

ading. When once the pupil can read fluently, he must be give emphasis to his reading, and to feel what he reads. He habituated to recite, and even gradually to analyze the phrases ds he has just read, to change the order, and express the same fferent words,—to put, for example, poetry into prose, &c. Thus rcises serve at the same time to teach him to think, and to speak. e also that he be made to declaim pieces he has learnt by heart.

erman language and composition. Language should be re- nd treated on the one hand as a means of *formal instruction*,— al logic; and on the other as an indispensable object of *material n.*

Arithmetic. This does not include either methods of abstruse n or practical arithmetic. Nothing more is required of the pupil e figures without difficulty, and to calculate in his head.

nging, piano forte, violin. The formation of the voice and ear. firmness in producing sounds. Exercises in elementary sing- almody.

e piano forte and violin, as much dexterity as can be expected, od fingering for the former instrument.

e suggestions have the effect of inducing a conscientious master vell even a few young candidates, they will have attained their

To obtain this result, it is not sufficient that the younger men should see the course gone through under skillful masters, or that they should themselves occasionally give lessons to their school-fellows; they must have taught the children in the annexed school for a long time, under the direction of the masters of the Normal School. It is only by familiarizing themselves with the plan of instruction for each particular branch, and by teaching each for a certain time themselves, that they can acquire the habit of treating it with method.

11. ANNEXED SCHOOL.

The annexed school was founded in 1825, and received gratuitously from 160 to 170 boys. The higher authorities, in granting considerable funds for the establishment of this school, have been especially impelled by the benevolent desire of securing to the great mass of poor children in this town the means of instruction, and of relieving the town from the charge of their education.

The town authorities agreed, on their part, to pay the establishment one thaler and five silber-groschen (3*s.* 6*d.*) a year for each child. On this condition we supply the children gratuitously with the books, slates, &c. which they want.

The annexed school is a primary school, which is divided into four classes, but reckons only three degrees: the second and third classes are separated from each other only for the good of the pupils, and for the purpose of affording more practice to the young masters.

The first class, with the two above it, forms a good and complete elementary school; while the highest presents a class of a burgher school, where the most advanced pupils of the Normal School, who will probably be one day employed in the town schools, give instruction to the cleverest boys of the annexed school.

The most advanced class of the students of the Normal School to be employed in the school for practice, is divided into five *cœtus*, or divisions, each composed of five or six pupils. Each division teaches two subjects only during two months and a half, and then passes on to two other subjects; so that each has practical exercise in all the matters taught, in succession.

As far as possible, all the classes of the school for practice attend to the same subject at the same hour. The master of the Normal School, who has prepared the young masters beforehand, is present during the lesson. He listens, observes, and guides them during the lessons, and afterward communicates his observations and his opinion of the manner in which the lesson was given. Each class has a journal for each branch of instruction, in which what has been taught is entered after the lesson. As far as possible, the young master who is to give the next lesson, witnesses that of his predecessor. By this means, and particularly through the special direction of the whole practical instruction by a master of the Normal School, the connection and gradation of the lessons is completely secured.

It is requisite that every pupil of the Normal School should teach all the branches in the lowest class in succession; for the master of a primary school, however learned he may be, is ignorant of the most indispensable part of his calling, if he can not teach the elements.

12. DEPARTURE FROM THE NORMAL SCHOOL; EXAMINATIONS; CERTIFICATE AND APPOINTMENT.

The pupils quit the Normal School after having pursued the course for three years; for the lengthening of their stay would be an obstacle to the reception of new pupils.

But they must first go through an examination in writing and *viva voce*,

by the ordinance of the minister of public instruction and ec-
and medical affairs, of which we give an abstract:
he pupils of the primary Normal Schools in the kingdom shall
an examination on leaving.
xaminations shall be conducted by all the masters of the
ool, on all the subjects taught in the house, in the presence
he direction of one or more commissioners delegated by the
chool board.
pupil, before leaving, shall give a probationary lesson, to
at degree he possesses the art of teaching.
the examination is over, and exact accounts of the pupils
given by the director and all the masters, a certificate shall
l to each pupil, signed by the director, the masters and the
ers.
ertificate shall specify the knowledge and talents of the pupil;
e whether he possesses the art of teaching, and whether his
cter renders him fit for the office of primary schoolmaster. It
e, besides, a general opinion of his character and attainments,
y one of the terms, 'excellent,' 'good,' 'passable,' and answer-
umbers 1, 2, 3.
ertificate only gives the pupil a provisional power of receiv-
intment for three years. After that time he must undergo a
ation at the Normal School. But any pupil who, on leaving
hment, obtained number 1, and has, in the course of the three
een teacher in a public school, shall not have to pass another
. No others can take a situation, except provisionally.
new examinations shall not take place at the same time as
pupils who are leaving; but, like those, always in the pres-
der the direction of the commissioners of the school board.
first examinations the principal object is, to ascertain if the
well understood the lessons of the Normal School, and learn-
them; in the last, the only object of inquiry is the practical
andidate.
sult of this new examination shall likewise be expressed in
, appended to the first, and care shall be taken to specify
fitness of the candidate for the profession of schoolmaster."
reason, the pupils on their departure receive a certificate, the
which describes their talents, character and morality, and the
g contain an exact account of the result of the examination
hes of study.
o have not obtained appointments in the interval between the
ations, shall present this certificate to the superintendents and
ctors of the places where they live, and, on leaving that place,
d a certificate of conduct, which they shall produce at the
second examination. Those who have been in situations
hree first years, shall produce certificates from their immedi-
s.
upils can not be appointed immediately on their leaving the
a great number of them are proposed by the director for va-
and are sought after by the royal government, by superin-
gistrates, &c.; so that at the end of a year we may calculate
e all established.

, in his "*Report on Public Instruction in Prussia,*" after
he foregoing account, remarks:

swer for the perfect fidelity of this description of the Normal
otsdam.
scheme in action. The spirit which dictated the arrange-

ment and distribution of the tuition is excellent, and equally pervades all the details. The Normal course, which occupies three years, is composed, for the first year, of studies calculated to open the mind, and to inculcate on the pupils good methods in every branch, and the feeling of what is the true vocation of a primary teacher. This is what is called the *formal* instruction, in opposition to the *material* or more positive instruction of the second year, in which the pupils go through special studies of a very solid kind, and learn considerably more than they will generally be called upon to teach. The third year is entirely *practical*, and is devoted to learning the art of teaching. This is precisely the plan which I take credit to myself for having followed in the organization of the studies of the great central Normal School of Paris, for the training of masters for the royal and communal *colleges*. At Potsdam, likewise, the third year comprises the sum of the two preceding, and the pupils are already regarded as masters. In this view there is a primary school annexed to the Normal School, in which the students in their third year give lessons, under the superintendence of the masters of the Normal School. The children who attend this primary school pay, or rather the town pays for them, only four thaler (12*s*.) a year; there are 170. They are divided, according to their progress, into four classes, which are taught by the twenty or five and twenty students, or apprentice masters, in their third year, with all the ardor of youth and of a new vocation. I was present at several of these lessons, which were extremely well given. A master of the Normal School frequently attends one of the classes, and, when the lesson is finished, makes observations to the young masters, and gives them practical lessons, by which they can immediately profit.

As appears from the prospectus, the musical instruction is carried to a very high point. There are few students who have not a violin, and many of them leave the school very good organists and piano forte players. Singing is particularly cultivated. The course of instruction embraces not only a little botany, mineralogy, physical science, natural history, and zoology, but exercises in psychology and logic, which tend to give the young men the philosophy of that portion of popular education intrusted to their care. I was present at several lessons; among others, one on history and chronology, in which, out of courtesy to me, the pupils were interrogated on the history of France, particularly during the reigns of Charles IX., and Henry III., and Henry IV.,—a period of which Protestantism is so important a feature. The young men answered extremely well, and seemed perfectly familiar with the dates and leading facts. I say nothing of the gymnastic courses, as Prussia is the classic land of those exercises.

What struck me the most was the courses, called in Germany courses of *Methodik* and *Didaktik*, as also those designated by the name of *Padagogik:* the two former intended to teach the art of tuition, the latter the more difficult art of moral education. These courses are more particularly calculated for the acting masters, who come back to perfect themselves at the Normal School; for which reason they are not entered in the table, or prospectus, which exhibits only the regular studies of the school. These courses are almost always given by the director, who also generally gives the religious instruction, which here comes in its proper place,—that is, first.

I ought to add that all the students of the school at Potsdam had a cheerful happy air, and that their manners were very good. If they brought any rusticity to the school, they had entirely lost it. I quitted the establishment highly satisfied with the students, full of esteem for the director, and of respect for a country in which the education of the people has reached such a pitch of prosperity."

PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOL,

AT BRUHL.

Normal School at Bruhl may be regarded as a type of the establish- r teachers of the Catholic faith, as that at Potsdam is of the Prot- nstitutions. The following account is abridged from an annual Re- its principal, Mr. Schweitzer, a Catholic clergyman.

town of Bruhl stands in a beautiful plain on the left bank of the wo leagues from Koln, three from Bonn, and a short league from r. It is surrounded by fertile fields and picturesque villages. Di- efore it majestically rises the ancient Colonia, with its numerous and steeples, and its colossal cathedral. It bounds the view on that n the right, the *Siebengebirge*[*] traces its gigantic outlines on the tance, and on that side presents to the eye a picture of grandeur and From some neighboring hights the lover of natural beauty looks ith admiration on the plains which lie outspread before him, and the uster of the majestic Rhine, which, in its ample windings, rolls peace- ong, as if it delighted to linger in these smiling regions, while two ains of hills seem to hold this magnificent plain in their embrace. these chains stretches along the left bank of the Rhine, to the Eifel ins, and is for that reason called the *Vorgebirge*—(fore or introduc- ge): at the foot of this chain is Bruhl. The summit is clothed with st of Vill, and the undulating sides are dotted with country-houses tty villages, the houses of which are half hidden among fruit-trees. lossoming season these villages present the most delightful aspect, to compose a picture of enchanting variety. It is not without rea- n, that Bruhl was the favorite residence of the Electoral Archbishops , and in former times this little town was far more important than it At the present day Bruhl consists of only 278 houses, among re many poor mud cottages, and contains only from fourteen to undred inhabitants. Since it ceased to be the residence of the Elect- inhabitants nearly all live by agriculture, and by a small trade. re only two remarkable buildings,—the palace, which is abandoned, monastery. This latter building is occupied by the establishment y care.

monastery was formerly the nursery of the order of Franciscan for the whole province of Koln. After the suppression of the order eft bank of the Rhine, in 1807, Napoleon gave the monastery and endencies to the town of Bruhl, which, in 1812, granted them to Schug and Schumacher for the establishment of a secondary and cial school, whose existence closed in 1822. At the end of that e town ceded these buildings to the government, for the establish- f the primary normal school which now occupies them.

1. BUILDINGS.

e house is built in a grand style, with three stories, and in a quadran- orm. The entrance is to the north, and leads by a small fore court, on the one side into the convent, on the other into the church, which is handsome, light, and lofty. The high altar, of artificial marble, and the organ, are much admired. On the south side are two wings, which give the buildings a handsome and palace-like appearance. From the very entrance, the cloisters are wide, with lofty vaulted roofs, cheerful and well lighted. They run quite round the building, as do the corridors over them on the first and second stories. On the ground floor we have four rooms or halls for study, and a large and very light dining-hall, which serves also for our public meetings, for study and for prayer. Beside it, are two school-rooms, and two rooms for the steward, with kitchen, offices and servants' hall in the basement story, where the porter has also his kitchen and two rooms. The establishment has a pump, abundantly supplied with fine water, near the kitchen; a rivulet which runs under the two wings is of great importance for purposes of cleanliness.

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[*] The cluster of seven mountains nearly opposite to Bonn.

"The director occupies the eastern side of the building on the first floor; the inspector, the left wing and a part of the southern side; the steward has the rest of that side; the right wing and the western side are inhabited by an ancient father and brother of the Franciscan order,—regarded as the last remnant of a once flourishing body, now extinct—and by the master of the school for practice. There are no rooms to the north, only corridors adjoining the church.

"The assistant masters inhabit the upper story, in which are also five hospital rooms to the south, and two large dormitories for the students to the east and west of the main building. A granary or loft, in good repair, runs over the whole of the building, and affords both steward and masters convenient stowage for their stock of grain of all kinds.

"Both masters and pupils have ample reason to be satisfied with the rooms for study and for dwelling. The masters' apartments are not handsome, it is true; other schools have better: with a little cleaning and decoration they might, however, be made very comfortable. The students' dormitories are cheerful, and better fitted up than any I have seen in any normal school; their appearance is very neat and agreeable, with the clean beds all covered alike, which can be done only where they are furnished by the establishment. This house has only one inconvenience,—violent currents of air; but these might, I think, be remedied.

"The outside of the building is as agreeable as the inside is convenient; it is situated on the prettiest side of the town, and has no communication with any other building except the palace, with which it is connected by a covered way, and by the old orangery. It has a magnificent view over a delightful country, a large kitchen-garden, a commodious court, and two flower-gardens.

"The building is of stone, and consequently very substantial; its aspect is indeed a little hoary now, but a new coat of plaster would soon give it a cheerful appearance. The roof is in good condition, and if once the building underwent a thorough repair, the whole might be kept up at a very small expense. During the past year no great repairs have been done.

2. NUMBER OF STUDENTS.

"The number of students is fixed at a hundred; at this moment there are ninety-two. The object of the establishment is to train schoolmasters for the Catholic parishes of the four regencies of Coblentz, Koln, Aachen, and Dusseldorf. Its position with relation to the government is, in principle, to receive the pupils from its hands, and to render them back accomplished for their task. In the other normal schools the rule is, that the candidates for admission be examined by the schoolmasters, and by them declared fit or unfit to be either entered or immediately admitted; but here it is the cus-

m to be examined in the department they come from, without
ation of the school, and afterward admitted by the director on
ion of the government. On the other hand, the parting exam-
with the school, under the condition of a special commissioner
nt. The pupil declared fit for nomination is not subject to be
by the government authorities. According to its regulations,
s not only authorized, but obliged, at the end of the first year, to
he pupils who are judged incapable of attaining the requisite
At the time of the last parting examination, the school had
d to exercise this power in the case of eight pupils, which re-
number to ninety-two.

3. HEALTH.

lth of the students was not so good in 1824 as in the preceding
ficiently appears from the bill for medical attendance for the two

this amounted to 66 thaler (9*l.* 18*s.*), in 1824 to 177 thaler (26*l.*
we must not forget that the number of pupils in the latter year,
with the former, was as three to two. There have indeed been
is diseases, and few of a serious character, but frequent inflam-
catarrhal fevers, some intermittent and one nervous fever. In-
ophthalmia, attacks on the chest, and palpitations of the heart
n rare. The physician has paid the pupils great attention, in-
almost say too much; and I have agreed with him that he shall
em medicines, except in cases where diet, rest, perspiration, and
nedies are insufficient. In order to prevent the young men from
facility of applying to a physician, I have ordered that no one
future, consult him without my permission. Infectious cutane-
are avoided by having the pupils examined by the physician on
e, and again a week after. If any well-founded suspicions arise,
kes place as a measure of precaution; if the appearances of a
isease are certain, the pupil is sent home till perfectly cured.

4. ORDER, DISCIPLINE, AND MORALITY.

rigid attention to order, we could not hope for the smallest
an establishment composed of various elements, like this nor-
where young men who differ in language (dialect), manners,
n are gathered together, there must be rigorous obedience to
mestic life, the head of the family *is* the rule; and in a large es-
unquestionably those who govern are strictly bound to furnish
o all under them. They are that spring of the great machine
t cease to move without stopping the whole. But it is also ne-
the establishment should have its precise rules, its written code
e governors, it is true, fill the place of the law whenever it is
ll, without distinction, ought to know accurately what they *must*
they *may* do. For this reason, the undersigned cannot share
of some very estimable teachers who think it not necessary, nor
nt, that there be written laws for an establishment like the pri-
school; nay, that their promulgation may operate only as an
break them. Laws seem to me to grow out of the very na-
nstitution. Gather together a number of young men without
any rule for them; they themselves will soon feel the neces-
ng laws for the government of their intercourse with each other,
ose one of their body as guardian of these laws. It is, then,
ul, and fitting that the managers and masters should make laws

for the school confided to them. If it be true that laws create the temptation to break them, that is a reason why laws for all human society ought to be abolished. Fixed laws give to an institution a steady course, protect the weaker against caprice and tyranny, prevent mistakes and precipitation, and, what is more important for the future, they show in a clear and striking manner the necessity of laws for the commonwealth, and train youth to a reasonable and willing obedience to them. The opinion I offer here springs from my general conviction of the utility of positive written laws, which my own experience has greatly strengthened. For in those infractions of order and discipline which have occasionally happened, I have contented myself with punishing the fault by reading the infringed law to the culprit, in a calm but severe manner, either in private or before all the pupils assembled; and this punishment has never failed of its effect.

"After this digression, which I have thought it expedient to insert here, I return to the order of the house. It is our duty to make the utmost possible use of the daylight, as being more healthful, more cheerful, and more perfect than lamp-light, and costing nothing. In our situation, it would be unpardonable to turn night into day. I make it a great point, too, that the young men should get the habit of rising early, so that in the evening they may lay aside all anxiety and all labor, and give themselves up to the enjoyment of tranquil and refreshing sleep. In summer, therefore, we rise at four, and even earlier when the days are at the longest; in winter at six, in spring and autumn at five. In summer, I and my pupils go to bed at nine or half past, in spring and winter at ten. The pupils ring the *reveille* by turns; a quarter of an hour after, the bell rings again, and all assemble in the dining-hall, where the morning prayer is said; then they all follow me to the church, where I perform the service of the holy mass. One of the students assists in the service; the others sing the responses; this religious act, for which we use the prayer-book and psalter of Bishop Von Hommer, is sometimes mingled with singing, but rarely, because singing very early in the morning is said to be injurious to the voice and chest. All is terminated in an hour; and the pupils, after having thus sanctified the first hour of morning, return to the house, make their beds, breakfast, and then prepare for lessons, which begin at seven or at eight, according to the season. In establishing this rule, I had some fears, at first, that rising so early and going directly into a cold church in the depth of winter, might be injurious to their health; but I am always there before them, and I have never suffered. It may be said that I am more warmly clothed than the young men; but then they are young, their blood is warmer than mine, and that restores the balance. Moreover, it cannot but be advantageous to them to harden themselves, while habits of indulgence and delicacy would be extremely unfavorable to them in their profession. On the Sundays and festivals of the church, I say mass to the students at half past eight in the morning. They sing a German mass for four voices, or simple chants and hymns: and, on high festivals, Latin mass. During the last year, the pupils of the first class have several times executed some easy masses extremely well. But, generally speaking, I am not perfectly satisfied with our church music; not that our masters and pupils do not do their best, but we have not a suitable supply of church music. The singing in Catholic churches is subject to a particular condition: it must be connected with the acts of the mass; it must form a whole, distinct, and yet in harmony with the mass, and moreover, must be adapted to each of the epochs of the ecclesiastical year. Now we have very little church music fit for the people. What there is, is in the hands of a few individuals, who do not choose to part with it. There is doubtless an abundance of sacred music suited to every occasion, but it is all in the most elevated style; and to what good end should the studies of the pupils be pushed so far beyond what can be of use to them in their future sphere of

usic of the highest order never can nor ought to become the
the people. Music ought not to be cultivated as a mere grati-
sense; it ought to help to ennoble and refine the heart, and to
oral taste.
not signify so much how they sing, as what they sing. In pri-
al schools music ought not, any more than reading, to be the
bject; it must be regarded and treated as a means toward a
which is, education and moral culture. It is therefore with rea-
e primary normal schools are required to diffuse a nobler and
y kind of popular sacred music; this is, as regards music, their
e. A good composer, who would devote himself to this object,
ire immortal honor. It is to be wished that the higher authori-
larly of the church, would encourage composers who show a
acred music, to fill this chasm. In these remarks I have in view,
nly the Catholic church. It is quite otherwise with the Protest-
possesses a great store of psalms; there is only to choose what
iate to the sermon. This greatly facilitates the task of the Prot-
al schools. In the Catholic worship, on the contrary, the sermon
bordinate part of a higher whole, with which the singing must
adapting itself to the different important moments, and hence
of simple counterpoint fit for the purpose. To attain the pro-
we ought to have, not only a good organist, but also an able
which it is not easy to find. I return to the order of the day.
day begins with prayer, so it ends with it. A quarter of an hour
our before going to bed, all the pupils assemble, at the sound of
evening devotions. A short portion of the holy scripture is
ter enlarging more or less on a text, and recommending it to im-
nclude by a prayer. During the past year I preached a homilet-
e on the lesson of the day, before mass every Sunday morning;
comes difficult for me to speak fasting, I now reserve it till even-
also been decided, that as a means of keeping alive religious
elings, the pupils should confess and communicate once a month,
cular reasons render it expedient to prolong the interval to six
t furthest, two months. The rest of the day is employed ac-
he scheme of lessons and the order enjoined by the minister.
re not allowed to go out, except on the weekly afternoon holi-
is is sufficient for their health, because in all their hours of rec-
can take exercise in a garden of two acres which belongs to the
nt. Nevertheless, on fine days I occasionally give them leave to
itions into the country, when I think their health will be bene-
making it an express condition that they shall take no pipes.
d to correct faults; better still to prevent them. Abundance
s have been adduced in support of the principle that we must
have their will, in order that their will may become vigor-
it till the time when the reason expands to give it a lofty direc-
his is letting the tares overtop the wheat before we attempt to
ut. Experience proves that the good seed springs up more vig-
thrives better when the soil has been cleared of weeds. Dis-
t, therefore, to precede and to accompany the instruction of
as docility and modesty that of children. Doubtless external
d reserve are but the beginning of wisdom; man must be
hink spontaneously and without external impulse, of the duties
r, so that it may become his inclination to fulfill whatever he has
gnized as a duty, to consult nothing but conscience, and to set
ve the praise and the blame of men. This is true and uncon-
ertheless, the flesh is always weak, even though the spirit be
there are few of those elect for whom approbation and cen-

sure, remonstrances and encouragements, hope and fear, are not necessary helps; and for that reason, such helps are used for great and small, in private houses as well as in schools, in church as well as in state, and will never fail, if wisely used, to have a salutary effect. A hard ascetical constraint and discipline are as far from my taste as from my principles; but experience demands rigorous order in great schools, especially at their outset. When order has once been thoroughly established, when the will of each has learned to bend to the unity of the collective body, the early severity may be relaxed, and give place to kindness and indulgence. As long as I can recollect, I have observed that the education of children is best in houses where this principle is observed. To let children grow perverse and wayward in their infancy through weak tenderness and indulgence, and then to reprove and chastise them with harshness when their habits are formed, cannot be other than a false system. For these reasons we always begin by reading the rules and disciplinary laws of the house, so that the pupils may distinctly know what they have to do; we then take care that these laws are strictly enforced. The masters, on their side, are careful to show the most punctual obedience to all their duties. We afterward read portions of the rules, according to circumstances, and to the demand for any particular part; thus the discipline is strengthened and facilitated. The highest punishment is expulsion; and last year we were obliged to resort to this twice. In all cases we try to proportion the punishment to the fault, so as to conduce to the amendment of the culprit and the good of all. For instance, if one of the pupils lies in bed from indolence, he is deprived of his portion of meat at dinner, and for four days, a week, or a fortnight, as it may be, is obliged to declare his presence when we meet in the morning. Being kept at home on holidays, ringing the bell, fetching water, &c., are the only corporal punishments for faults of indolence and infractions of order. Faults of impatience or carelessness, of insincerity or mischievousness, of coarseness or any sort of incivility, offenses against decency or good manners, are punished by notes in the inspection-book, which the culprits themselves are obliged to sign. As to the conduct of the students when out of the house, the authorities and inhabitants of the whole neighborhood unanimously bear witness that the presence of these young men is in no way perceived. It is not difficult to speak to their hearts, and by expostulation suited to their age and station, to touch them even to tears.

"Of this I could cite several instances, did I not fear prolonging this Report. I will, however, give one. Last year the students of the highest class were dissatisfied with the steward, and presented a petition very numerously signed, in which they enumerated their causes of complaint, and asked to have him removed. I gave the petition to him, that he might answer the charges; and after he had made his defense, I suffered accusers and accused to plead their cause, at the time of one of the religious lessons. The steward was not irreproachable; his fault was, indeed, evident enough: on the other hand, the complaint was exaggerated, invidious, inexact, and inconsiderate; for several had signed without reading; others had signed because such or such a point seemed to them just; others again had shown themselves extremely active in collecting signatures, and had reproached those who refused to sign. The affair being clearly and circumstantially stated, the steward had his share of the reprimand, and was deeply affected by it; others were moved to tears; and the offenders, when the unbecoming, inconsiderate, and even criminal points of their conduct were distinctl explained to them, acknowledged their injustice, and promised never to ac in the like manner again.

"Order and discipline, instruction and prayer, are thus regarded and employed as so many means, general and particular, for cultivating the morality of the pupils; and the undersigned, during the short time he has had th

e institution, has had the satisfaction of seeing many who entered
ad and distressing habits, leave it metamorphosed and renewed.
s and modesty have been substituted for giddiness; the spirit of
e for craving after sensual enjoyments; and those who came to
ordinary bread, have acquired a taste for purer and higher food.
y possible that among so many, a vicious one should not occa-
reep in; and last year, among the new-comers, was a cunning and
hed thief, whose depredations filled the establishment with dissat-
nd alarm. It was difficult to find him out, but falsehood and per-
tray themselves in the end. Heavy suspicions were accumulated
e year on the head of the criminal; and though there were not pos-
fs, he could not so escape our vigilance as not to leave us in pos-
a moral certainty against him. He was expelled at the examina-
t year. Nevertheless, as there was no legal proof, his name was
atized by publicity, and the higher authorities will readily excuse
entioning it here, and will be satisfied with the assurance that no
e of the kind has since occurred.

5. INSTRUCTION.

siness of the primary normal school is to form schoolmasters.
erefore furnish its pupils with the sum of knowledge which the
declared indispensably necessary to the intellectual wants of the
ses of the people, of whom they are to be the teachers, and must
fit them to fulfill their important vocation with zeal and with a
will and earnestness.

e than grapes can be gathered from thorns, or figs from thistles,
ing good be hoped from schoolmasters who are regardless of re-
of morality. For this reason, religious instruction is placed at the
l other parts of education: its object is to implant in the normal
ch a moral and religious spirit as ought to pervade the popular
The course of religious instruction has undergone no change from
d in the report of last year, except that the several classes have
ed for the Biblical part. During the present year we propose to
concordance of the Gospels, the history of the Apostles, and some
istles. The course adopted is this:—The series of the concord-
tablished and dictated by the master; the passages and discourses
ned, and, if thought expedient, learnt by heart by the pupils. For
ising, or religious and moral instruction, properly so called, the
e separated. The great catechism of Overberg is taken as a
rk; and we treat first of faith, then of morals, so that the latter
timately connected with the former, or to speak better, that moral-
ow from faith as from its source. I regard religion as a disposi-
fection of the soul, which unites man, in all his actions, with God;
ne is truly religious who possesses this disposition, and strives by
ns to cherish it. In this view of the subject all morality is reli-
ause it raises man to God, and teaches him to live in God. I
ess, that in religious instruction I do not confine myself to any
method; I try by meditation to bring the thing clearly before my
, and then to expound it intelligibly, in fitting language, with grav-
mness, with unction and earnestness, because I am convinced that
position obliges the pupils to meditate, and excites interest and

the historical part, I have made choice of a short exposition of
of the Christian church, with an introduction on the constitution
ish church. I think it impossible to learn any thing of universal
at can be useful or instructive to the students, in less than a hund-

red lessons. It signifies little whether a village schoolmaster knows the history of India, China, or Greece; but he ought to know something of the history of the church, because it is, in many points, nearly connected with that of religion. I must confess that, in the measure of time allowed us, I cannot make universal history very interesting or profitable to the pupils; but it is otherwise with ecclesiastical history.

I introduce the theory of education and tuition by experimental psychology. This course of study is of infinite use, in teaching the science of education, and of tuition, as likewise in teaching morals and religion; but I regard the school for practice, and the method there pursued, as the bes course of pedagogical instruction. I have come to the conviction that generally speaking, it is necessary to recommend to the pupils of the normal schools, and to all young schoolmasters, a firm and decided plan, leaving it to them to modify it as time and experience dictate. It is with them as with a traveler going to a place he has never been at before: it is bes to show him the high road, that he may not lose himself; when he is familiar with that, he may try cross-roads, if he thinks they will abridge his journey. The masters of the school agree in my views on this point, and endeavor to act up to them. The following are their courses of instruction i their several departments, furnished by themselves.

Language:[*] *First class, or class of the first year.*—In the first half year w begin with the simplest elements, and gradually go through all the parts o speech, but without their subdivisions. In the second half year we g through the subdivisions in like manner; so that, in the first year, a thoroug knowledge is acquired of the simple and compound elements, as well as o the divisions and subdivisions of speech. The course of instruction is partl synthetic, and partly analytic; that is to say, what has been learned in th first manner, is made thoroughly clear in the second, by the analysis of passage from some author. *Second class, or class of the second year.*—Thi class, proceeding in a similar way, goes through the most complicated per ods. In the second half year the pupils are familiarized with the most important principles of logic and of etymology.

Arithmetic: *Second class.*[†]—In the first half year are studied the rule o three, single and compound interest, and discount; in the second, the e traction of the square and cube roots, as far as equations of the first an second degree. The result of this course is a complete familiarity with a the branches of common arithmetic. These two departments of instructio language and arithmetic, are taught according to the views of the inspecto

Geometry: Second class.—In the first half year they get through what r lates to rectilinear figures and the circle; in the second, the theory of th transmutation of figures is added; and after that, the most important pri ciples of geometry and the measurement of solids. The books of instru tion are those of F. Schmid and Von Turck.

Drawing: First class.—In the first half year drawing is carried as far the knowledge of the most important laws of perspective, so as to place o jects, not too complex, according to the laws of perspective. In the seco half year they study light and shade. *Second class.*—During the first h year the attention is directed to the relief and shading of works of art, su as houses, churches, vases, &c. In the second half, the pupils copy go drawings of landscapes, flowers, &c., with a view to familiarize them wi the style of the best masters. The method adopted is that of F. Schmid.

Reading: First class.—Begins by the enunciation of some simple prop sitions, which are decomposed into words; the words are reduced to syl bles, and these to their simple sound. This course has been adopted w the pupils, that they may themselves use it with the younger children, a thus acquire a familiar acquaintance with it. It is taught according to ne inspector. *Second class.*—In the first class the principal object with ease; in the second, reading with expression. The chief nstruction consist in the master's reading aloud frequently, be considered that this plan is more unfailing and more easy than Since, however great the application on the part of both master the art of reading is at all times difficult to acquire, this branch ion occupies a whole year.

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[*] M. Wagner.

[†] Another master takes the arithmetic for the first class or first yea

: *First class.*—In the first half year they begin with easy exerne and melody; the next step is to easy pieces for four voices. l half year is devoted to more difficult exercises of the same kind; the end of the year, the pupils have acquired a tolerable facility

Philosophy: Second class.—During the first half year the attencted to the general and particular properties of bodies; to those nents, water, air, and fire; then to the theory of sounds, the velods, the equilibrium of fluids, and aqueous meteors. In the second omes the theory of light, electricity, the lever, the inclined plane, neteors, optics, &c. The principal object is to render the pupils the most striking phenomena of nature, and to accustom them to n her laws and secrets. The method adopted here is that of the

ualf of last year my* lessons embraced the following points:—

rithmetic.—1, The knowledge of numbers with reference to their form; 2, addition; 3, subtraction; 4, subtraction and addition 5, multiplication; 6, multiplication combined with the preceding vision; 8, varied combinations of the four fundamental rules. was accompanied by its application, and by examples drawn from fe. My principal aim was to exercise the pupils in applying the actice. I have endeavored also to draw their attention to the thepecially to the mode of using different rules in the solution of the em; with this view, I have always alternated the oral and written

ic on the Slate.—Calculation on the slate is based upon mental insomuch that the latter may be considered as a preparation for When the four first exercises in mental arithmetic are gone e pupils begin to use the slate. I have labored not only to give ical dexterity, but also solid knowledge, and with this aim have l them to try various ways of working the questions.

of Geometry.—I have followed the work of Harnisch, and his pace drawn from the theory of crystals, and employed by him as he mathematics.

L HISTORY: *Botany.*—The principal parts of a plant are first t and named; then each of these parts are examined separately: ot, its form and direction; 2, the stem, its internal construction, nd its covering; 3, the buds, their place upon the stalk; 4, the ir variety according to their situation, their mode of insertion, , their place; 5, the flower-stalks; 6, the flowers according to s, the manner in which they are fixed, their composition; the ca, stamina, pistil, the fruit, seed-vessel, and sex of the plants. All een shown to the pupils, either in the plants themselves, or in hich I have traced on the slate. I interrupted the botany till we it up again after Easter, and began

gy.—I have pursued the same course here. The pupils have first arized with the properties which distinguish minerals one from their colors, the arrangement of parts, the external form, regular lar, or crystalline form; the polish, texture, transparency, vein,

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[*] Mr. Richter.

hardness, alteration of color, effervescence in acids: all these properties have been observed by the pupils in the minerals of our collection. To this succeeded the classification of minerals, from which the pupils have learned the names and uses of the most important.

Singing.—Having devoted last year, with my singing pupils, to time, tune, and acoustics, I have, during the past six months, combined the three branches of the art of singing which I had before taught separately, and have practiced them chiefly on sacred vocal music, such as a psalm of Schnabel's, a chorus from Handel's Messiah, a mass of Hasslinger, and another of Schiedermeyer, a chorus from Haydn's Creation, two songs by Von Weber, &c.

Thorough-Base.[*]—The lessons I have given in this science have been according to Hering's practical introduction, or to my own ideas. The following course has been adopted: 1, the theory of intervals; 2, the theory of harmonic thirds, *a.* if they comprise a scale, *b.* if they belong to the whole system; 3, the theory of the chord of the seventh, *a.* if it belongs to a scale, *b.* if it belongs to the whole system of chords; 4, modulation, *a.* in a free style, *b.* in a free style, with particular reference to the organ; 5, written exercises in parts for four voices.

Geography.—We have finished Germany and begun Europe: the following course has been adopted. First we made the pupils acquainted, as exactly as possible, with the Rhenish provinces—our own peculiar country; then with Prussia, then with the rest of Germany. This was done in the following manner: 1, the boundaries; 2, the mountains; 3, the rivers; 4, the natural divisions according to the rivers; 5, the towns. We then considered Germany in its political divisions, paying attention to the position and natural limits of the countries. All the exercises on this subject were done with skeleton maps. If time permit (though only one year with two lessons a week are allotted to this department), Europe will be followed by a general review of the earth.

Writing.—In the writing I have followed exactly the system of Hennig; by giving, 1, the easiest and simplest letters of the running alphabet to be copied, each letter separately, till the pupil can make them with ease; 2, words composed of such letters as they have practiced; 3, at the opening of the course, after Easter, will come the capital letters, in the same way; 4, English handwriting.[†] In practicing single letters, I have especially pointed out how one was formed out of another, and the letter they were practicing as making part of that which followed. Afterward copies, written, not engraved, are placed before the pupils, because these last, according to the opinion of good penmen, discourage the pupils.

Orthography.—1, The object and utility of orthography; 2, general rules of German orthography; 3, the use of capital letters; 4, the regular use of isolated letters; 5, the division, composition, and abbreviation of words. These rules are alternately put in practice in the dictations. The director, with the assistance of the masters, examines in each department every three months. Instrumental music, on the violin, piano-forte, and organ, is taught by Mr. Richter and Mr. Rudisch, with the assistance of two pupils.

6. SCHOOL FOR PRACTICE.

It is difficult, in a written description, to convey a just idea of a school, or of any large establishment for instruction. Nevertheless, I will endeavor to give a brief sketch of this institution, and of the manner in which the pupils are there occupied. The regulations fix from one to three in the afternoon for the lessons of practice. The children of the school for practice are di-eight classes, and one of the pupils from the normal school pre- each of these divisions alternately, so that twenty-four are occu- one to two, and twenty-four from two to three; and while the ty-four are teaching, the others listen, that they may be ready at ent to take it up and continue the lesson. This can be done only xed and complete mode of instruction is laid down.

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[*] Mr. Rudisch.

[†] *i. e.* The Italian handwriting, as distinguished from the current German hand.—TRANSL.

anches taught by the pupils are grammar, reading, composition, rawing, arithmetic, mental exercises, singing, religion. Language partly after Krause, and partly on the plan of the inspector, Mr. Reading is closely connected with writing, according to the the inspector. The pupils of the higher classes have subjects of ompositions given them; at the same time, they are made to learn short letters, narrations and descriptions, because this is deemed nethod of familiarizing children with the language, and enabling xpress themselves with ease in writing. When they have learned y heart, they endeavor to write it without a fault, and with the nctuation; the comparison with the original and the correction are mselves, that the thing may be more deeply impressed upon their rithmetic is taught on the system of Schumacher and Jos. Schmid. er classes great care is taken that the numbers are always correct, avoid the inefficient and too artificial mental arithmetic of Pesta- to make arithmetic itself an exercise of language. Singing is the two forwardest pupils of the school, who give two lessons in ng, and drawing by the two most skillful draughtsmen. For exer- nguage and mental activity, use is occasionally made of Krause's *for the Mind*, and Pestalozzi's *Mother's Book*. On religion the e but one lesson a week, under the particular guidance of the di- he special superintendence of this school is confided to the inspect- agner, who, besides a daily visit during the lessons, subjects them examination every week, to keep up a persevering activity in the n, and to know exactly what progress is made. The satisfaction ents at the pupils' mode of teaching is proved by the regular at- at the school. I am well satisfied with the practical ability hith- n by the pupils.

7. MASTERS OF THE ESTABLISHMENT.

asters, besides the director, were last year annexed to the estab- -the inspector, Mr. Wagner, and Mr. Richter. The assistant mas- udisch, was added at the beginning of this year. These masters entire and undivided attention to the school; yet they are not suf- this great establishment; two pupils and the organist of the town he department of instrumental music.

gh the general superintendence rests upon the director, yet, to re- one of the masters in rotation has hitherto conducted the special each week. But I see every day more clearly, that the whole ought to devolve upon the director alone;—in a well-regulated re should be but one head. The other masters also recognize this and in the end the director will have the whole superintendence, se of need, will transfer it to the inspector. But as the director spector cannot be always with the pupils, and as it is nevertheless that there should be some fixed person to refer to when disturb- complaints occur, the established custom will be continued of ap- the student who is deemed the best fitted as superintendent of -students. This plan may, besides, have a very useful effect in tion both of the young superintendent and of his school-fellows.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED IN THE TWO CLASSES AT THE NORMAL SEMINARY IN EISLEBEN, PRUSSIA, IN THE SUMMER HALF YEAR OF 1839.

HOURS.	CLASSES.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
7 to 8 . . .	First . . .	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction,	Art of teaching,	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction.
	Second . .	Religious instruction,	Profane history,	Logic,	Religious instruction,	Profane history,	Logic or sacred history.
8 to 9 .	First . . .	Profane history,	Logic,	Geography,	Profane history,	Logic or Prussian history,	Geography.
	Second . .	Arithmetic,	Thorough bass and organ,	Geometry,	Grammar,	Arithmetic,	Geometry.
9 to 10 . . .	First . . .	Reading,	Organ,	Thorough bass,	Art of teaching,	Reading,	Arithmetic.
	Second . .	Thorough bass and organ,	Religious instruction,	Drawing,	Writing,	Religious instruction,	Thorough bass and organ.
10 to 11 . . .	First . . .	Arithmetic,	Grammar,	Violin,	Arithmetic,	Grammar,	Organ.
	Second . .	Grammar,	Singing,	Drawing,	Thorough bass and organ,	Singing,	Writing.
1 to 2 . . .	First . . .	Art of teaching,	Natural Philosophy,	. .	Examination,	Natural history,	. .
	Second . .	Natural Philosophy,	Reading,	. .	Natural philosophy,	Reading,	. .
2 to 3 . . .	First . . .	Geometry,	Drawing,	. .	Geometry,	Writing,	. .
	Second . .	Composition,	Geography,	. .	Composition,	Geography,	. .
3 to 4 . . .	First . . .	Thorough bass,	Drawing,	. .	Violin,	Writing,	. .
	Second . .	. .	Violin,	. .	. .	Violin,	. .
4 to 5 . . .	First . . .	Organ,	. .	. .	Organ,	. .	. .

NOTE.—Three hours of singing, and one hour of instruction in the art of teaching, are also weekly given at indeterminate times.

SEMINARY FOR TEACHERS*

AT WEISSENFELS,

IN PRUSSIA.

eminary, for the education of teachers for the elementary schools,
four belonging to the province of Saxony,† and was last organized
It combines within its premises, or in the neighborhood, so as to
t to the control of the same director, the following establishments:
normal school, or seminary for teachers, a government institution.
paratory school, subsidiary to the former, and established by the
e of its teachers. 3. A seminary school, or burgher school, of four
pupils, already described. 4. An elementary school for poor chil-
two hundred pupils. 5. A school for the deaf and dumb, of twenty-
ls, established in 1828, and supported by the government. The last
ntioned schools afford practice to the students of the seminary.
overnment of these establishments is confided to a director,‡ who is
ble immediately to the provincial school-board in Magdeburg. He
personal charge of the seminary in which he gives instruction, and of
superintends the domestic economy, discipline, and police. He is
in the seminary by three teachers, who meet him once a week in
ce, to discuss the progress and conduct of the pupils, the plans of
on, and other matters relating to the school. There are also seven
teachers, five for the seminary school, and two for the deaf and
stitution, who also assist in the seminary itself. Once a month
a general meeting of the teachers of all the schools just enumerated,
ar purposes.

ants for admission are required to produce certificates of baptism,
conduct, and of health,§ besides an engagement on the part of their
or guardians to pay an annual sum of fifty thalers (thirty-seven dol-
maintenance. These papers must be forwarded to the director a
before the day of examination. The candidates are examined at a
me of the year (after Easter), in presence of all the teachers of the
nd their attainments must prove satisfactory in Bible and church
the Lutheran Catechism, reading, writing, German grammar, espe-
orthography of the language, the ground-rules of arithmetic (mental
ten), geography and history, and natural history and philosophy, of
e of the highest class of a burgher school. They must also be able
at sight, easy pieces of music upon the violin. The usual age of
n is eighteen; and the lowest at which they are admissible, seven-
On entrance, they are entitled to free lodging and instruction, and, if
nduct and progress are satisfactory, in general, receive a yearly allow-
twenty-five dollars, which is equivalent, nearly, to the cost of their
ance. Their clothing and school-books are provided by the pupils.
des of preparation judged most appropriate by the authorities of the
y are, the attendance on a burgher school, with private lessons from
tent teacher, or entrance into the preparatory establishment at Weis-
A gymnasium is considered by no means a proper place for the

Bache's Education in Europe.
agdeburg, Halberstadt, Erfurt, and Weissenfels.
Rev. Dr. Harnisch, to whom I am indebted for a kind welcome to his institution, and a
nt of its different schools.
irections issued by the provincial authorities are, that they shall have a strong chest
lungs, not to be too near-sighted, nor deaf, nor infirm. The physician's certificate must
ther they have had the measles, &c.

preparation of pupils, its courses, discipline, and mode of life having a different tendency from that required by the future teacher of a common school.

The admission of new pupils takes place with some ceremony, in presence of the teachers and pupils. The director gives a charge, in which he makes them acquainted with the rules of the school, chiefly those relating to moral conduct, to obedience to the authorities, punctuality, regular attendance at study, school, church, and, in general, on the appointed exercises, due exertion, neatness in their habits, and exactness in the payment of dues to the tradesmen with whom they may deal. They bind themselves to serve for three years after leaving the school, in whatever situation may be assigned them by the regency of Merseburg, or to pay the cost of their education and maintenance. During their stay at the seminary, they are exempted from military service, except for six weeks. In fact, this service usually takes place at leaving the school, and before entering upon their new career. The number of pupils, on the average, is sixty.

The courses of instruction are, morals and religion, German, arithmetic and geometry, cosmology, pedagogy, terraculture, hygiene, theory and practice of music, drawing, and writing. Cosmology is a comprehensive term for geography, an outline of history and biography, the elements of natural history and natural philosophy, all that relates to the world (earth) and its inhabitants. Pedagogy includes both the science and art of teaching. The courses just enumerated are divided among the masters, according to the supposed ability of each in the particular branches, the whole instruction being given by the four teachers. The director, as is customary in these schools, takes the religious instruction, and the science and art of teaching, as his especial province, and adds lectures on the theory of farming and gardening (terraculture), and of health.

The duration of the course of studies has been reduced from three years to two, on account, as is alleged, of the necessity for a more abundant supply of teachers. There are, probably, other reasons, such as the expense, and the fear of over-educating the pupils for their station, which have been influential in bringing about this reduction. There are two classes corresponding to the two years of study. The first year is devoted entirely to receiving instruction; and in the second, practice in teaching is combined with it. In the preparatory school there is likewise a course of two years, and the pupils are divided into two classes. This establishment is in a building near the seminary, which can accommodate forty pupils, and is under the special charge of one of the teachers.*

The outline of the studies in the two schools is as follows:

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

II Class. Bible stories, which the pupils must be able to narrate with propriety. Christian doctrine. Portions of Scripture committed to memory. Four hours weekly.

I Class. Reading the Bible, especially the historical parts. Krummacher's Bible Catechism. Christian doctrine. Parables of the New Testament. Seven hours.

In the lectures on Christian doctrine, which the two classes of the normal school attend together, the director gives a portion of Scripture to be committed to memory, explains and illustrates it, and interrogates the pupils, who take notes of the lecture, which they subsequently write out.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

II Class. Reading the Bible, particularly the historical parts; writing catechetical exercises, adapted to children. Two hours.

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* The payments made by the pupils are, per annum, for instruction, nine dollars; for dinner, bread not included, thirteen dollars and fifty cents; lodging, three dollars; waiting and nursing in time of sickness, one dollar and seventy-five cents; use of library, fifty cents.

. Continuation of the second class course. Two hours.
II Class. Christian doctrine, from Luther's Catechism. Three hours.
f the different dispensations. Two hours. A course of two years.

ourse of church history is taught, also, by the mixed method of lec-
interrogation, to both classes united.

GERMAN LANGUAGE.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

s. Exercises of speech in reading and delivery. Descriptions and essays
ts drawn from common life. Grammar. Writing, as an exercise in cal-
and orthography. Nine hours.
Reading, with explanations. Composition. Grammar revised. Writ-
the second class. Nine hours.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

s. Reading, with explanations. Writing, as an exercise of calligraphy and
hy. Exercises of style. A composition once every month. Essays from
eography, or natural history. Grammar revised. Eight hours.
Poetry, with readings. Calligraphy. Exercises of style. Grammar re-
ational literature. Seven hours.
t and second classes are united for a portion of instruction in this depart-
ended to rid them of provincialisms of speech, and to improve their hand-
Three hours.

MATHEMATICS.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

s. Arithmetic, including the Rule of Three. Three hours.
Arithmetic, revised and extended. Use of compass and ruler. Four

NORMAL SCHOOL.

s. Geometry, commenced. Four hours.
Revision of previous studies. Geometry, continued. Two hours.

ethod of teaching mathematics is that of Pestalozzi; and director
has himself prepared a work on geometry for his pupils. The ap-
s are made to follow the principles closely. As in the other courses,
ter part of the learning is done in the school-room, the books being
her for reference than for preparation. In the lessons which I at-
n this department, much skill was displayed by the instructors, and
onsiderable degree of intelligence by the pupils. Considering it as
ns of developing the reasoning powers, this method is very far supe
at in which the propositions are learned from books. To exem-
method of Dr. Harnisch, I may state the following case of a recita-
eometry by the second class. The equality of two triangles, when
sides and the angle contained between them in one are equal re-
y to the two sides and the contained angle in the other, had been
y the teacher, and the demonstration repeated by the pupils, who
errogated closely upon it. An application of the theorem was at
uired, to determining the distance between two points, one of which
ssible. Two of the class found the solution immediately, and all
e to take part in the subsequent discussion of the problem.

COSMOLOGY (WELTKUNDE).

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

s. Elements of botany and zoology. Excursions for practical instruction
mer. Four hours.
. Geography and the drawing of maps. Elements of physics and tech-
Biography. Three hours.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

s. Revision of the above studies. Three hours.
II Classes united. General views of the earth and its productions and in-
s. One hour weekly for one year. Gardening and hygiene (Gesundheits-
Two hours weekly for two years.

The lectures in the normal school on these subjects are by the director. The means of illustration in physics are small, and the whole course is chiefly intended to show the future teachers how wide a range of knowledge may be opened to them by study. The natural history is illustrated, for the most part, by drawings. To render the seminarists more useful in their situation of country schoolmasters, which a large proportion of the pupils become, they have lectures on the principles of agriculture and gardening, and also practical lessons from the gardener, who has charge of the grounds. The pupils work during the appropriate season every day in turn, under the direction of the gardener. Good manuals, conveying correct but elementary instruction on these matters, are much wanted. They should, perhaps, be prepared by a teacher, but by no means allowed to go into use without revision by persons specially acquainted with the different branches of science thus grouped together. This revision would insure the accuracy which, though difficult to attain, is so necessary; the more so in conveying such elements, as there is no collateral knowledge to correct or modify error as to fact or theory.

SCIENCE AND ART OF TEACHING.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

The first class receive simple directions for keeping school, and lessons on teaching. They attend in turn the classes of the seminary-schools two hours weekly, but take no part in teaching.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

II Class. Lessons on teaching, three hours. Visits to the schools, three hours.

I Class. Lessons on the art of teaching, three hours. Visits to the schools, five hours. Lessons on the instruction of the deaf and dumb, by the director of that department, one hour.

I and II Classes united. Science of teaching, two hours.

The director delivers the course on the science of teaching, which in these schools is considered of the highest importance, and also gives a portion of the lessons in the art of teaching to the first class.

The theoretical instruction in the science and art of teaching embraces two courses, each of a year; the first being devoted chiefly to education in general, the second to instruction and the arrangements of the school.* The director remarks of this course, that the pupils learn by it to say a good deal upon these subjects, and sometimes believe that they can easily execute what they can so readily describe; an opinion of which practice can alone show the error, and which it is essential should be removed. The general theory of education is founded upon the constitution of man, and, under the head of instruction, the methods of teaching the various branches are described. The practice which must render this theory of real use is had in part in the schools. The pupils attend the free school, the burgher school, and the deaf and dumb school, at stated times. They go at first as listeners, next take part in the instruction, under direction of the assistant teachers, and lastly instruct the classes. In order that they may have models of teaching, not only in the assistants, but in the teachers of the seminary themselves, the latter give lessons occasionally in the different schools. Thus the director teaches one hour per week in the seminary school, the second teacher two hours, and the third and fourth teachers four hours. The lower class attend the several classes of the burgher school, except the highest girls' class, remaining, in general, one-fifth of the time in each class except the lowest, where they remain double this time, and visiting each

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* Harnisch's Manual of Common School Matters (Handbuch des Volks-schulwesens) is used as a text-book.

A more common division of the course is into pedagogics, or the principles of education and instruction. Methodics, or the art of teaching the system or methods of education, to which a third division is sometimes added, called didactics, which relates to the subjects of education, (Schwarz Erzichung und Unterrichts lehre).

ice at intervals. The upper class attend also the girls' class, the
l dumb school, and the free school, remaining one-eighth of their
each of the classes. Each member of the lower class keeps a jour-
is visits to the schools, which is inspected by the second teacher.
the first class draws up a report of his occupation and observations
chools, which is reviewed by the assistant teacher of the class to
refers, and is then examined by the second teacher and by the di-
The several assistant teachers make reports upon the qualifications
minarists who have given instruction in their classes. By these ar-
nts, a pupil who has the mental qualities essential to a teacher can-
o become well versed in the practice of his profession. Habits of
ion are inculcated, which must be of great service to him in his prac-
bling him to adapt himself to the circumstances in which he is
nd to profit by the experience of every day.

emplify the principles and methods, a small number of the children
seminary school are brought into the class-room of the seminary,
xamined upon a given subject by some of the pupils. The class
and the director make their notes on these examinations, and the
terminates by an examination of the children by the director him-
n exemplification of his views, and that they may not receive injury
ng left in a half or ill-informed state on the subjects of the lesson.
dren having retired, the different members of the class make their
, which are accepted or shown to be erroneous by the director, a
ce or discussion being kept up until the subject is exhausted. The
of each exercise is marked by the director, who is thus enabled to
the progress made by every member of the class, and to encourage
nish privately, according to circumstances.

ctures given by the head master of the school for the deaf and dumb
accompanied by practice, a certain number of pupils being detained
y for that purpose. The basis of the method is the idea that it is
to restore the deaf mute to society, by enabling him to understand
anguage from the motion of the lips, and to speak intelligibly by
al rules. It is hoped ultimately, by training every schoolmaster in
od, that the mute may be instructed in schools with other children,
not be required to sunder ties of kindred during a long absence
ne. The pupils of the deaf and dumb institution do not live in the
ment, but are boarded with tradesmen of the town of Weissenfels.
ct is to induce the practice of the lessons out of school, the pupils
joined to avoid the use of signs. The first lesson is one in articula-
he principle of this instruction is now dominant in Germany, but up
me the system has not been fairly tried by its results. The indomi-
rseverance of the masters of the principal schools which I visited
e with admiration; but I was not convinced that what they aimed
racticable, at least to the extent which their principle asserts. The
deserves, however, the best encouragement.

DRAWING.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

o classes united for geometrical and perspective drawing.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

me course continued.

MUSIC.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

o classes united for instruction in the elements of music. Choral singing.
on is given on the piano and organ to the pupils, divided into four sec-
hey are also taught the violin.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

struction, as just stated, is continued. Theory of music. Composition.

The violin is taught, as the means of leading the exercises in singing in the elementary schools. The piano serves as an introduction to the organ, a knowledge of which is important to the Prussian schoolmaster, as enabling him to act as organist in the church of the parish where his school may be situated. So high a value is placed upon an elementary knowledge in vocal music, that an ability to give instruction in it is indispensable to admission into the class of teachers. It is not, therefore, surprising that the pupils of the seminaries, in general, are proficients in music. I confess, however, that I was not prepared for the advance in the theory and practice to which many of the first class in this school had attained. In regard to the former, I was present at one of the exercises in composition, in which the teacher* read, and the pupils transcribed, three stanzas of poetry. This done, they were required to compose an air adapted to the words. In less than ten minutes, a fifth of the class were ready. The teacher took his station at a black-board, on which the ledger lines were drawn, and one of the pupils whom he designated began to sing the words to the air which he had composed, the teacher writing the music meanwhile. This air was pronounced not to be original. A second was tried, which the teacher thought an imitation. A third and fourth he accepted, and wrote upon the board. They were criticised by both the class and teacher, set to parts by the former, and sung. The two classes were in the next hour united for choral singing, in which many are proficient, the teacher leading at the organ.

The course of drawing is limited in extent, the object being chiefly to give opportunities to those pupils who have a taste for drawing to cultivate it. In fact, as it tends to divert attention from more important matters, which the short time spent at the seminary requires entire devotion to, it is not much encouraged.

The four teachers attached to the normal school have charge of specific departments of labor, as well as of particular implements of instruction. The director has the general superintendence of the instruction, discipline, household arrangements, and finance, and is librarian of their small collection. The second teacher has charge of one of the schools, of the musical exercises, books, and instruments; a third, of the students when assembled, especially in the school-house, and of the drawings, copy-slips for writing, and maps. The fourth superintends the pupils while in the dwelling-house, and also at meals. These teachers are aided in their duties by younger ones attached to the seminary, under the title of assistant teachers. The dining-hall, or the recitation-rooms, serve as places of study, according as the pupils are in the school-house or in the dwelling, the two buildings being separated by a portion of the grounds. The chapel, which is a neat room connected with the school-house, serves for the music-room, as well as for the religious exercises.

The order of the day in the normal school will serve to show how constantly these young men are employed in preparing for the duties of their arduous profession, and yet they appeared to me always cheerful in the performance of their self-imposed task. In winter, the pupils rise at five, and, after washing and dressing, have a brief religious exercise, and study until breakfast, which is at seven o'clock. Until eight there is recreation. From eight until twelve they are in school, engaged in recitation, listening to lectures, or teaching. From twelve until one they have dinner and recreation. From one until five they are again in school. From five until seven or half past seven, in summer, there is recreation, or excursions are made with a teacher, and then study until nine. In winter, there is recreation until six, from six to eight study, and from eight to nine musical exercises, one-third playing on the violin, another on the organ or piano, and another singing. At half past nine in winter, and ten in summer, the pupils retire. There are prayers id evening. On Wednesday and Saturday they have half of the reation, and in summer make excursions to collect plants or minplace for gymnastic exercises is provided, and used during the creation.

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* Mr. Henschel.

ral education of these young men is closely attended to. They ceive direct religious instruction, but the best examples are conore them. The chief reward for proficiency or good conduct is ation of the teachers; the principal punishment, short of dismisdisapprobation. The director has, also, the influence, resulting ower, to give pecuniary assistance to the meritorious while in the to secure them good places at leaving it. The greatest harmony ughout the establishment. On the evenings of Saturday, there tly parties in turn among the teachers, to which the pupils are invhere there is usually music. Those who have acquaintances in re encouraged to visit their families, but the places of visiting own to the director.

education is most essential where young men, at the time of life eminarists, are sedulously engaged in intellectual pursuits, and so much confined to the house. They, therefore, have gymnass or work in the fields or garden, or walk during those periods and parts of the week allowed for recreation. Care is taken that, posed, they do not remain in the house at those times, when the rmits them to be in the open air. There is an infirmary for the ich one of the pupils in turn acts as nurse, and a physician is hen necessary.

ol year is divided into three terms, the first from the beginning of August, the second from September to Christmas, and the third ary to May. The holidays are four weeks in August, two at and one at Easter. During the first two named, the pupils go eir friends. Christmas is celebrated in the school, and at the first and second terms there are private examinations, the results re communicated to the students. At the close of the third term, ation for passing from the second to the first class is held, and romoted from one class to another unless fully proficient in the the past year. At the end of the second year, they are examined hole range of study, and in composition and orthography. Those atisfactorily receive a diploma, and find no difficulty in obtaining it as teachers. Some of the most promising are frequently rehe schools of the institution as assistant teachers, under the apof the director. The additional experience thus gained is of ima professional, and ultimately in a pecuniary point of view.

ipil, on leaving the school with a diploma, makes a drawing, or ece of music or of writing, which he leaves as a memento.

ils of all the normal schools are bound by law to serve in such s may be assigned to them for three years, or to pay certain sums his service.

nestic economy is superintended by the director, who has a houseer his orders. Dinner is provided at a common table, but each nishes himself with breakfast and supper. The diet is of the nd, but there is meat for dinner every day in the week except e police of the establishment is attended to by the pupils themhe members of the second class, in turn, have charge of the police ol-rooms, dormitories, of the lamps, of ringing the bell, &c.; or s are executed by those who have fallen under censure. The superintend the fires and out-of-door work, have charge of the

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er costs seven dollars and fifty cents per annum, or about two cents and a If a pupil receives no stipend from the institution, he is charged but half this cellar, store-room, lavatory, &c. There are three dormitories, under the general superintendence of one of the teachers, aided by pupils selected for the purpose. The bed and bedding are furnished by the pupils at entrance. The lodging of these youths is, like their fare and clothing, of the plainest sort—a plainness which puts in strong relief the richness of the moral and intellectual culture afforded by the institution.*

The following additional particulars respecting this celebrated seminary, are gathered from a full description by Mr. Kay, in his "*Social Condition and Education of the People of Europe.*" Mr. Kay's visit to the institution was made in 1846. He gives prominence to some features briefly alluded to by Dr. Bache.

All candidates for admission present themselves at the institution, at the annual candidates' examinations, which are conducted by the director and professors, in the presence of the educational magistrate for the county. The most able and forward of the candidates are then, after a careful examination, elected and admitted. There are generally, in each of the Prussian provinces, some special regulations, limiting this choice of students for the normal colleges. Thus, the regulations of the province, in which the normal college of Weissenfels is situated, prescribe, that "no short-sighted, deaf, or feeble candidates shall be admitted." The same regulations also direct the examiners to give a preference to those candidates who have a broad chest and a good voice. They also forbid any young man being admitted before he has completed his seventeenth year, or, "unless he is a young man of a good character, moral habits, and unimpeachable conduct."

A part of the young students educated in the Weissenfels institution are prepared for admission in a preparatory normal college, situated not far from the principal establishment. This preparatory institution contains about sixty boys, most of whom are destined for reception into the principal college. Some of them, however, make such satisfactory progress in their studies during their residence in the preparatory institution, as to be able to present themselves at the annual examination for diplomas, without going through the normal college at all. The course of study at this preparatory school is of two years' duration. The boys, who are destined to be teachers, and whose parents can afford to pay for their education, enter it about the end of their fifteenth year, after leaving the primary parochial schools. There are two classes in this school. The first class is intended for the boys during their first year's residence in the establishment, the second contains all those who have spent more than one year in the establishment.

The subjects of instruction in the first class of this preparatory school are: religious instruction, Scripture history; composition; a clear pronunciation in reading and speaking; arithmetic, writing, the German language; agriculture and farming; drawing; singing, the violin, and piano-forte.

The subjects of instruction in the second class are: religious instruction, Scripture history, Scriptural interpretation; the German language; writing, arithmetic, geometry, natural philosophy, geography, history, drawing; choral singing, the violin, the piano-forte; and exercises in teaching.

It often happened, that many young men who had presented themselves at these entrance examinations have been rejected, as not having made sufficient progress in their studies, even when there still remained several unoccupied vacancies in the establishment, which the director was desirous of filling up. But the maxim in Prussia is, that it is better to have no teacher, than to have an incapable or an immoral one.

As soon as a candidate has been admitted into the Weissenfels College, he is required, with the approbation of his parent, or guardian, to bind himself by writing.

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* The yearly cost of this institution is but about twenty-eight hundred and forty dollars. The director receives a salary of six hundred dollars, which enables him to live very comfortably, and to maintain his proper station, on a par with the burgher authorities, the clergyman, district judge, &c.

During the first three years after leaving the normal college, to accept ation in the county in which the college is situated, to which he should ented by the county magistrates; and during these three years, to avoid gements which would prevent him fulfilling this condition.

f he should not, during the first three years, accept any situation which nty magistrates offer him as soon as it is offered, to repay to the college utlay which was made by the institution, while he remained there, upon tenance and education.

Prussian government has, however, enacted, that as long as any candi- o has been educated at one of the normal colleges of a county, is unpro- th a situation, neither the county magistrates nor any parochial commit- any patron of a private school, shall elect any other person as a teacher, hough such person shall have obtained a diploma certifying his fitness to her.

bove-mentioned regulations are intended to prevent unprincipled men use of the gratuitous education of the college, merely for their own nent in life, without any intention of ever acting as teachers in the paro- ools of the county; to prevent the young men commencing to teach, ney have satisfied the magistrates of their fitness and capability; and to e young and unpracticed teachers to begin their labors in the worse paid rer situations, from which they are afterward advanced to the more im- nd lucrative posts, if they prove themselves deserving of such advance- Were it not for the former of these two regulations, the poorer situations ever be filled, while the worse paid teachers would seldom have any any advancement; and were it not for the latter, unprincipled men able to avail themselves of the gratuitous education of the college in prepare for more lucrative situations than those which the teachers gener- py during the first three years after obtaining their diplomas.

time of my visit the students paid nothing for their lodgings or dinners; provided their own bread and milk for breakfasts and suppers, and for f they wished to eat bread with their meat. I inquired, if they could at they liked for breakfasts and suppers, but the answer was, "No; we v milk and bread, as we wish to accustom them to the plainest fare, that never find the change from the normal college to the village school a or the worse; but always one for the better." The young men furnished es with all the necessary class-books; but their instruction was entirely s; and, I believe, that the sum total, which a young student had to pay , exclusive of the cost of bread and milk for breakfasts and suppers, and othes, did not exceed three pounds, so that there was nothing to hinder nen, of the humblest ranks of society, entering the college, and being there for the teachers' profession.

e household duties (except preparing meals, making fires, and cleaning e) were performed in turn by the young students themselves. Each an had his appointed days, when he was expected to ring the bell for the lectures and meals, to bring the letters from the post, to attend the sick, the director's dinner to his room, to light the lamps, &c., &c. By the nce of these humble duties, and by their labor in the gardens, where ivate the vegetables for the use of the household, they learn to combine y and humility with high mental attainments; and are taught to sympa- h the peasant class, with whom they are afterward called upon to min- to whom, it is the principal duty of their lives, to render them good rs, instructors, and friends.

nmer, the first and second class of the students, attended each by a pro- ake long walks into the country to botanize, for botany is studied care- all the teachers in Prussia, as they are required to teach at least the of this science to the children in the country parishes, in order to give greater interest in the cultivation of plants, and to open their eyes to some wonders of creation, by which they are more immediately surrounded.

t deal of time is devoted to the musical part of the education of Prus- hers, and the proficiency attained is perfectly astonishing. I was present tercise in musical composition in the Weissenfels College. It was the second class that was examined, so that I did not see what the most proficient students were capable of performing. The musical professor wrote upon a black-board a couplet from an old German song, which he requested the students to set to music. In ten minutes this was done, and though every composition was not equally good, yet, out of a class of twenty, I have six different pieces of music, the compositions of six of the students, which deserve no little praise for their harmony and beauty. The director afterward assembled all the professors and students of the college, in the hall, that I might hear them sing some of their national songs together. The performance was most admirable; the expression, time, and precision, with which they managed the great body of sound, which they created, was quite wonderful. My readers must remember, that every German child commences to learn singing as soon as it enters a school, or, in other words, when it is five or six years of age; that the young students continue the practice of singing and chanting from six years of age, until the time when they enter the normal colleges; and that during their residence there they daily practice the most difficult musical exercises, besides learning three musical instruments. It is not, therefore, surprising that they attain very remarkable proficiency. I have mentioned several times that every teacher in the normal colleges in Prussia (and the same is the case throughout Germany) is obliged to learn the violin and the organ. They are required to know how to play the violin, in order with it to lead the singing of the children in the parochial schools, as the Germans think the children can not be taught properly how to modulate their voices, without the aid of a musical instrument. They are required to learn the organ for a reason which I will now explain.

The German teachers, as I have before shown, have almost always some duties to perform, in connection with their respective places of religious worship. If the teacher is a Romanist, he is expected to attend upon the priests, to play the organ, and to lead the chanting and singing. If he is a Protestant, he has to give out the hymns, to play the organ, to lead the chanting and singing, and if the clergyman should be prevented officiating by illness, or any other cause, the teacher is expected to read the prayers, and in some cases also to read a sermon. This connection of the teachers and of the religious ministers is very important, as it raises the teachers' profession in the eyes of the poor, and creates a union and a sympathy between the clergy and the schoolmasters.

In order, therefore, to fit the teachers for these parochial duties, it becomes necessary for them to pay a double attention to their musical education, and particularly to render themselves proficient upon the organ.

Hence a traveler will find, in each of the German teachers' colleges, two or three organs, and three, four, and sometimes six piano-fortes, for they commence with practicing on this latter instrument, and afterward proceed to practice on the organ.

They had two organs in the Weissenfels Institution; one in the great lecture hall, and another in one of the largest of their lecture rooms.

As I have already mentioned, time-tables were hung up in different parts of the establishment, showing how the different hours of the day are to be employed. Before visiting any of the classes, the director took me to one of these tables, and said, "You will see from that table, how all the classes are employed at the present moment, so you can choose which you will visit." In this manner, I chose several classes one after the other, by referring to the table; and I invariably found them pursuing their allotted work with dilligence, order, and quiet.

The education of the young students, during their three years' residence in the training college, is, as I have said, gratuitous. The young men are only required to pay part of the expenses of the board. Even this small expenditure is, in many cases, defrayed for them, so as to enable the poorest young men to enter the teachers' profession; for the Prussians think, that a teacher of the poor ought to be a man, who can thoroughly sympathize with the peasants, and who can associate with them as a friend and a brother; and that no one is so well able to do so as he, who has known what it is to be a peasant, and who has personally experienced all the wants, troubles and difficulties, as well as all the simple pleasures of a peasant's life. For these reasons, they have endeavored in many ways, to facilitate the admission of peasants into the teachers' profession. They

nded, in the *superior schools*, a great number of free places, which are
l expressly for boys of the poorest classes, who are unable to pay any thing
ining their education, beyond the course of the primary schools. These
re generally awarded to the most advanced of the poorer scholars, who
editably passed through all the classes of a primary school, and who are
of pursuing their education still further. This liberal and excellent plan
a young man, however poor, to prepare himself for the admission exam-
of the normal colleges.

ven if a young peasant is enabled to enter a normal college, there is still
nse of maintaining himself there; and this, unless provided for, would,
se of most peasants, be an effectual bar to his entering the teachers' pro-
To obviate this difficulty, the Prussians have founded, in each of their
normal colleges, a certain number of what are called *stipendia*. These
correspond with the foundations at our public schools. They are en-
laces, intended for poor and deserving young men, who would not, with-
n, be able to bear the small expenses of residence in these institutions.
undations or endowments are created, sometimes by charitable individu-
times by municipal corporations, and sometimes by the government, but
t of them is always the same, viz.; the assistance of very poor young
romising abilities, who are desirous of entering the teachers' profession,
would not be able to aspire to it without such assistance. There are ten
oundations in the Weissenfels Institution, varying in amount, and created,
the municipal authorities of Weissenfels and other towns in the province,
rs by private individuals.

rincipal part of their instruction in pedagogy is reserved for their third
idence in the normal college. They then begin to practice teaching at
hours. One or two of the students, who have passed two years in the
ment, are sent daily into each of the five classes of the model school,
which classes has a separate class-room assigned to it, where one of the
ed teachers of the model school is always engaged in instruction. Under
intendence, and subject to the criticism and advice of these able teach-
oung students make their first attempts in class teaching. After they
nded these classes for some months and have gained a certain profic-
class management and direction, they are allowed by turns to take the
of the classes of the other school for children, which is attached to the
n. Here they are left more at liberty, and are subjected to no other *sur-*
than that of the casual visits of the director, or one of the superior pro-
ho pay occasional visits to the school, to see how the students manage
ses, and what progress they make in the art of teaching. They also
uring their third year's residence, regular lectures given by the director
ogy; indeed, their principal employment during their last year's resi-
the college is to gain an intimate acquaintance with both the theory and
f this difficult art. With what success these labors are attended, all
witness who have had the pleasure of hearing the intelligent and simple
in which the Prussian teachers convey instruction to the children in the
schools. There are none of the loud, and illogical discourses, or of the
ted and meaningless questions, which may be heard in many of our
but the teacher's quiet and pleasant manner, the logical sequency of his
, the clearness and simplicity with which he expounds difficulties, the
of his eye in detecting a pupil who does not understand him, or who is
e, and the obedience of the children, never accompanied with any symp-
ar, show at once, that the Prussian teacher is a man thoroughly ac-
with his profession, and who knows how to instruct without creating
nd how to command respect without exciting fear.

are three vacations every year in the Weissenfels College; one in
f three weeks, one at Christmas of two weeks, and one at Easter of
s' duration. Previous to each vacation, the young men are called to-
hen the director reads aloud a paper, containing the opinions of himself
rofessors of the abilities, industry, and character of each student. Each
n is then required to write out the judgment, which has been passed
self. These copies are signed by the director, and are carried home by

the young men to be shown to their relatives. The students are required to present these copies to their religious ministers and to their parents, and to obtain their signatures, as a proof that they have seen them. They are then brought back, at the end of the vacation, to the normal college, and are delivered up to the director, that he may be satisfied, by the signatures, that their friends and religious minister have seen and examined them. It is not necessary to show how great a stimulus to exertion these written characters afford.

The following regulations are a literal translation of some, which are contained in a published description of the Weissenfels Institution, which was put into my hands by the director.

"Since the state considers the education of good teachers a matter of such great importance, it requires that all young students shall be removed from the establishment, concerning whom there is reason to fear that they will not become efficient schoolmasters. The following regulations are therefore made on this point:

"If at the close of the first year's course of study, it is the opinion of *all* the professors of the normal college, that any one of the students does not possess sufficient ability, or a proper disposition, for the profession of a teacher, he must be dismissed from the establishment. But if only *three* of the professors are of this opinion, and the fourth differs from them, they must inform the provisional authorities of their disagreement, and these higher authorities must decide. Should the unfitness of any student for the profession of a teacher be evident, before the end of his first year's residence in the normal college, the director must inform the young man's friends of this fact, in order that they may be enabled to remove him at once.

"If any student leaves the institution without permission before the end of his three years' course of study, and yet desires to become a teacher, he can not be admitted to the examination for diplomas sooner than the young men who entered the normal college when he did.

"In cases of theft, open opposition to the rules and regulations of the establishment, and, in general, in all cases of offenses which merit expulsion from the college, the superior authorities, or provincial committee, must carry such expulsion into execution."

When the young men have completed their three years' course of study in the Weissenfels College, they can present themselves for examination for a diploma. Until a student has gained a diploma, he can not instruct in *any* school, or in *any* private family. The knowledge that he has procured one, serves to assure every one that he is fitted for the right performance of his duties. If he can show this certificate, granted by impartial and learned men, after rigid inquiry into the merits of the claimant, every one feels that he is a man to be trusted and to be honored. It assures them that he entered the Weissenfels College with a high character, that he maintained it while there, and that he has attained that amount of knowledge which is required of all elementary school teachers.

A young man who has not been educated in the Weissenfels College may obtain a diploma if he can pass the examination, and can furnish the county magistrates with the following certificates:

1st. A certificate of a physician that he is in perfect health, and has a sound constitution.

2d. An account of his past life composed by himself.

3d. Certificates from the civil magistrate of his native town or village, and from the religious minister under whose care he has grown up, of the blameless character of his past life, and of his fitness, in a moral and religious point of view, to take a teacher's situation.

The committee of examiners at the Weissenfels Institution consists of Dr. Zerrener, the educational councillor (schulrath) of the provincial school committee under which the normal college is ranged; of Dr. Weiss, the educational councillor (schulrath) of the court of the county in which Weissenfels is situated; and of the director and professors of the normal college.

The examination is conducted by the professors in the presence of these two educational councillors; and when it is over, the young men receive their diplomas, marked "1," "2," or "3," according to their merits. Only those who

he first kind, or those marked "1," are capable of being definitely ap-
to a school; those who obtain either of the other kind of diplomas, can
e a situation on trial for one or two years; at the end of which time they
ged to return again to the normal college, and to be re-examined, when
in receive diplomas, marked according to their merits, as before. Until
man has obtained a diploma "1," he can not obtain an independent situ-
d it sometimes happens that a young man returns three or four times to
al college ere he can obtain a permanent appointment as a teacher.

xaminations at the Weissenfels College are very strict, and last for two
'he young men are examined both *vivâ voce* and also by writing in all
ects of instruction in the college and the examinations are rendered all
imposing by the presence of the two representatives of the Minister of
nstruction. Religious instruction, history, (both sacred and profane,)
oth theoretical and practical,) geography, (both topographical and phys-
mmar, arithmetic, mental calculation, mathematics, botany, natural his-
particularly pedagogy, are the subjects of this searching investigation.
oung candidate passes it creditably, his diploma is signed by the two
atives of the Minister, and by the professors of the establishment; and
t time forward he is a member of the profession of teachers. His long
f study is then at an end; the continual examinations to which he had
viously subjected are passed. He is, from that moment, the recognized
f his country, which protects him and encourages his efforts.

en after a teacher has obtained his diploma marked "1," and after he
appointed to a permanent situation, the directors and professors of the
not lose sight of him.

, or the inspectors of the county court, perceive that a teacher, after
he college, neglects to continue his education, or that he has forgotten
e knowledge or skill he had acquired when there, they require him to
the college for a few months or weeks, where he is made to attend the
nd to submit to the discipline intended for the regular students. The
gistrates are empowered to provide for the support of his family, and
anagement of his schools, during the time of his residence in the

ector of the college is directed to make at least one tour of inspection
r through the whole of the district, for which his normal college edu-
hers, at the expense of the county magistrates, for the purpose of
the progress and attainments, and of making inquiries about the charac-
teacher, who have been educated in his college.

t necessary for me to point out how these different regulations tend to
character of the teachers' profession in Prussia, and to gain for them
tion and respect of society. As it is laid down in one of the circular
f the Prussian government, "the chief end of calling the teachers back
mal colleges at intervals, is to increase the earnestness, zeal, and enthu-
he teachers in their duties; to regulate and perfect the character of the
in the village schools; to produce more and more conformity and
t in the methods of instruction used in the schools; to make the teach-
pon the normal college as their common home, and the place to which
all apply for advice, assistance, and encouragement; to make the pro-
the college better acquainted with those parts of the education of teach-
particularly require their attention, and which are necessary to form
illage school teachers; to inspire the professors of the normal college
stant zeal in the improvement of the district in which their college is
and to impress upon the young students of the normal college, from
entrance into it, a full sense of the importance of the work in which
bout to engage." Every one knows that any person, who is officiating
, must necessarily be a learned and moral man. Every one knows that
sed through a long course of education in religious and secular instruc-
nuing from his sixth to his twentieth year; that he has passed two or
rent severe examinations with honor; that he is well versed in Scrip-
y, in the leading doctrines of his religion, in the history of Germany,
lines of universal history, in geography, and in arithmetic; that he is a

good singer and chanter; that he can play the organ, piano-forte, and violin; that he is acquainted with the elements of the physical sciences, with natural history, and botany; and that he is profoundly versed in the science which is more peculiarly his own, viz., that of pedagogy. I have already said, that it is no uncommon thing for a Prussian teacher to be acquainted with the Latin language, that very many speak and read French fluently, and that not a few can also, at least, read English. Now, I do not ask whether we have a class of *village* teachers who can be compared to these men, for it would be ridiculous to put such a question; but, I ask, have we *any* set of teachers in the country, who, in *general* attainments, can bear comparison with them? Very few of the masters of our private schools are gentlemen who have been educated at our universities; but of even those who have been brought up at our great seats of learning, I would ask any university man, whether one man in ten receives any thing like so general an education as the Prussian schoolmasters must have obtained, in order to enable them to pass the examination for diplomas? Do the students at our universities generally learn any thing of church history, of music, or of physical geography? Do they learn even the outlines of universal history? Are they acquainted with botany or natural history? Do many study carefully the history of their own country or its geography? Do any of them know any thing of pedagogy? If not, where shall we find a class of teachers of even the children of our gentry nearly so highly educated as the Prussian parochial schoolmasters?

SEMINARY

FOR

TEACHERS OF THE CITY SCHOOLS,*

AT BERLIN, IN PRUSSIA.

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ne of the more recently erected seminaries, and its objects are be—first, to educate teachers for the city schools; second, to hers to advance in their vocation, by providing them with lecvith a library; and third, to enable candidates for the ministry to newhat acquainted with the art of teaching, as they are required, y, to act as inspectors of the schools. The first of these is the of the institution. The teachers to be furnished are, in general, of equired for the burgher schools. This, with its location in the the general plan of this school different from that already dehe care taken in the selection of the directors of the normal vents the necessity for minute regulations, and does what no an—namely, infuses the proper spirit. Hence, there will always ferences in the minute details of these institutions, which may r, be essential.

tor of this seminary† is also the head of the school of practice it, and already described. There are, besides him, eight teachers school and seminary. The pupils of the latter are about fifty

ls generally live out of the seminary, there being accommodaor sixteen or eighteen within the buildings. It is an important nether the method of boarding the pupils in or out of the house pted in these institutions, and I believe that it has been rightly n at Weissenfels and here, adopting in the former school the ollecting the pupils, and in the latter, of allowing them to dwell

litions for admission are nearly those, as to certificates, age, and , of the Weissenfels school, taking as the standard of qualificaainments of pupils from the preparatory department. Thus, ars is the general age of admission, and the applicants must preschool-board of the province certificates of baptism, of having e first communion, of having attended school, of moral conduct, lth, and that their parents or guardians will support them while nary. The candidates are expected to be prepared for examinaprincipal parts of the Bible and the chief truths of Christianity, cquainted with some of the principal church songs; to express correctly in words and in writing, and to have a good knowledge ology of the German language; to understand the ground rules c, proportions, and fractions, and the elements of form in geomssess a competent knowledge of geography and history; to know nathematical instruments, and to have an elementary knowledge The school does not professedly maintain any pupil while receivion, but assists some of those of the second year who are meri makes a further advance to those of the third year who have nselves worthy of their calling.‡

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he's Education in Europe.

rweg.

amount to sixty dollars yearly. The boarders at the school pay but three dollars n cents per quarter for their lodging. An entrance fee of twelve dollars is paid, s the pupil from further charges for instruction.

The courses are of three years' duration, of which the first is entirely occupied with revising and extending the attainments of the pupil; the secon is, in part, devoted to teaching, but under the inspection of the director; an the third is mainly filled up with teaching in the school attached to the seminary, or others of the city. This arrangement is intended, first, to secure due amount of scholarship on the part of the pupils; and next, to mak practical teachers of them. The first essays in their art are made unde close supervision; and subsequently, the independent teaching affords the opportunities for comparing the theoretical principles which are inculcate in the lectures at the seminary with their daily observation; and the com munication of their remarks in meetings with the director gives them th advantage of his experience in guiding their observation.

The scope of the instruction here does not differ essentially from that a Weissenfels, the subjects being reproduced in a different form. The following table gives the names of the branches, with the time occupied in each o the classes, the third class being the lowest. The course of each class is year in duration.

The hours of duty are from seven in the morning until noon, and fro two in the afternoon until four for the second and third classes, with few exceptions. The first class receive their instruction from half past five unt half past seven in the evening, except on Wednesday and Saturday. Wednesday is a half-holiday for the lower classes, as well as Saturday.

The religious instruction is given by a clergyman. The physical education is left much to the discretion of the young men, at least in case of thos who live out of the seminary. The school is deficient, as the one alread described, in the means of illustrating the courses of natural philosophy an natural history, but the pupils may have access to the natural history collections of the university.

TABLE OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF TIME AMONG THE DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT AT THE BERLIN SEMINARY.

Subjects of study, &c.	HOURS PER WEEK.		
	First Class.	Second Class.	Third Class.
Pedagogy	2		
Practice	1	4	
Religious Instruction	1	2	3
Theory of Music		1	1
Vocal Music	1	3	5
German Language		2	6
Reading		2	2
Arithmetic		3	4
Geometry		2	2
Geography		1	2
History		1	2
Zoology		2	2
Mineralogy		2	2
Physics		2	2
Drawing	2	2	2
Writing		1	2
Playing the Violin		3	3

The method of instruction, as in the other school, is mainly by lectur with interrogations. The inductive system is followed in the mathematica branches.

NORMAL SCHOOLS

FOR

FEMALE TEACHERS IN PRUSSIA

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ol system of Prussia, as well as the European system of public
generally, is defective in its provision for female education be-
west grades of schools. While boys are highly instructed in
e elements of science, and the principles of the useful arts, in
ls of a higher grade, the girls, except those of the wealthy
atic classes, are entirely neglected. This has had the effect
asm, broad and deep, between the intelligence and intellec-
ties of the two sexes—has weakened the power and influence
n society—has narrowed the circle of a mother's teaching at
hut her out from the wide and appropriate field of employ-
acher in every grade of public and private schools. The
le contribution now making by our American, and especially
gland experience, to the advancement of public education, is
ration of the wisdom of giving to every girl, rich or poor, and
ay be her destination in life, an education which shall corres-
unt and adaptation, to that given to boys in the same school—
arly, to such as show the requisite tact, taste, and character,
te training for the employment of teaching. Our experience
not only the capacity of woman, but her superiority to the
the whole work of domestic and primary instruction,—not only
teachers of infant and the lowest class of elementary schools,
ants in schools of every grade in which girls are taught, and
teachers, with special assistance in certain studies, in country
rally. Their more gentle and refined manners, purer morals,
tinctive love for the society of children, and greater tact in
ement, their talent for conversational teaching, and quickness
ding the difficulties which embarrass a young mind, and their
en properly developed, and sustained by enlightened public
f governing even the most wild and stubborn dispositions by
ral influences—are now generally acknowledged by our most
educators. Let this great fact be once practically and gen-
nized in the administration of public schools in Europe, and
be made for the training of female teachers on a thorough
scale, as is now done for young men, and a change will pass
ole face of society.

hin ten years no attempt was made to train females for the
of teaching, except in certain convents of the Catholic
re the self-denying life which the rules of their establishment

require, and the excellent education there given, are an admirable preparation for the important duties which many of the sisters are calle upon to perform as teachers in schools for the poor, as well as for boarding-schools connected with their religious houses.

In 1840, for the first time, a seminary for female teachers, governesse or rather a seminary course, was established at Marienweider, in th province of Prussia, in connection with a high school for young ladies, in stituted by Alberti. The course is for two years. Candidates must b sixteen years of age, must be confirmed, and pass a satisfactory examination in the branches taught in common schools. Instruction is given i French, English, and Italian languages, as well as in the German literature and language, arithmetic, history, geography, natural sciences, musi history of art and esthetics, including drawing, sketching, &c., as well as i the theory and practice of teaching. The charge for tuition and residenc can not exceed four thalers a month, and this is reduced according to th circumstances and continuance at the seminary of the pupils. In 184 there were twenty-two pupils.

In 1841, a class of female teachers was instituted in connection with th celebrated "Diaconissen Anstalt," at Kaiserswerth, erected by Mr. Flei ner. The course for elementary schools occupied two years. In additio to the studies pursued at Marienweider, instruction is given in domest economy and household work. Practice in teaching is had in the orpha and hospital schools, and the elementary school of the great establishment. In 1848, there were eighty-five pupils, forty-four of whom we destined for infant and industrial schools.

The "school for deaconesses," at Kaiserswerth, on the Rhine, was i stituted by Rev. Thomas Fleidner, the pastor of its small Protestant pa ish, who seems to be acting in a new sphere of Christian benevolen with the spirit of Franké. The main object of the institution was to tra females of the right spirit—females who are willing to consecrate a po tion of their lives in humility and love to the service of their fellow-cre tures, for Christ's sake—to the practical duties of the sick room. Th original plan has been extended so as to embrace a Normal departme for training young women of the same spirit for teachers of infant schoo as well as an asylum for erring. It is conceived in the spirit, and to son extent, formed on the model of some of the orders of sisters of charity, the Catholic church. It presents a new application of the principle, a illustrates in a beautiful manner the importance, of Normal or professio training in every department of life which involve art and method. T following account of a visit to the institution is abridged from a commu cation in Lowes' Edinburgh Magazine, for 1846.

"Kaiserswerth is the name of a small village on the east bank of the Rhi about an hour from Dusseldorf. The village is clean and orderly, but very a cient in its houses, and still more so in the aspect of its church and man This circumstance the more fixes the attention of the traveler on a new str running at right angles to the old one. All the buildings in it are peculiar, a piece on but awkwardly with the old manse, whence they spring, and which occupied by the "School for Deaconesses." The Rev. Thomas Fleidner is p mall parish, and has found full occupation for his benevolent energy ution of which he is the founder.

ittingly made our visit of investigation on the great anniversary; a ool examinations, for inspecting the hospitals, and for setting apart, cise of their functions, wheresoever they may be called, such dea- have satisfactorily passed through their period of training. The was therefore in its best attire. Windows bright, walls newly l every here and there, where an arch or a peg to hang a wreath be found, active and tasteful hands had transferred the garden's easures of flowers to the various chambers of the dwellings. In a e side of the street, the floor was covered with beds for the repose schoolmistresses and deaconesses who had returned to enjoy the day former associates; while, on the other, the hall with its table of s, and the savor of good food from the kitchen, indicated that the on that day to entertain her children. In short, it was a gala day— all the year when many acquisitions are brought to light, and for y a studious preparation is made. As all were engaged in the ex- f the orphan-school, we had leisure, while waiting, to observe the ic furniture of the manse parlor, where, according to the fashion of , the pale sand crackled under our feet. There hangs a portrait of er, the honored and most useful coadjutor of her husband. She has g mother of that institution, of which he is the father. Having l her strength to it, she was in her prime translated from the land anxiety to the land of eternal rest.

is placed, in meet companionship, a portrait of our Mrs. Fry, whose eye took in at once, with much delight, the utility of the whole in- On the same wall appears a portrait of Mr. Fleidner's mother, a idow of a former pastor, whose lovely Christian bearing we had respect and admire, having made her acquaintance in a distant city. ared a large family for the church, and suffered many hardships ountry was the scene of French warfare, being long separated from , uncertain of his safety, and moving from place to place with her ren, at times at a loss for a lodging and all necessary provision.

to these portraits are engravings of some of the Protestant Reform- whom appear Luther and Calvin; and in a corner a cupboard door, furnished with books for sale, chiefly such as are employed ls or report their condition. Also the noble set of Scripture prints prepared for the institution, but which is now to be found in many or the benevolent instruction of the young in Germany and Prussia. an amiable and gentlemanly man, who apologized for his imperfect me and guided us to the school-room, in which an intelligent teacher forth the attainments of his pupils. The audience consisted of Mr. co-presbyters, the physician, a few personal friends, the teachers at day visitors to the school where they had themselves been trained, ny of the deaconesses as could be spared from their regular avo-

ans under examination are many of them the children of pastors nasters. They looked more vigorous and hearty than most children do in Germany, and are receiving good, sound education, which to help both themselves and others in future life.

led from the school-room to the dormitories, and found each con- small beds, and one larger. The deaconess, who occupies the is regarded as the mother of these six children, and fills that office ng, clothing, medicating, and instructing them, just as a real mother Each bed has a drawer which draws out at its foot, containing all ant's property, and on the opposing wall is hung a tin basin, jug, rush for the use of each. The deaconess soon feels an attachment ns spring up in her bosom, while she also feels responsibility about and healthy appearance, proper demeanor, and attainments of all

saw the delinquents' shelter, and two women in charge, one an ble, firm-looking person, whose post is probably never changed, and nger, her pupil. They showed us with some satisfaction the needle- had taught to a set of lowering-browed, unpromising-looking females, who, like their peers in Scotland, gratify their curiosity by side-peeps, but nev look you fairly in the face. From the educational system of Prussia, it rar occurs that reading requires to be taught to adults. The senior deacone spoke mildly and sensibly of some intractable, two or three runaways, some conciled to friends, some restored to society, and acquitting themselves well service. In short, it was a fac-simile of poor humanity, and the uncertain sults of benevolent effort at home. These women sleep in small apartmen which fill one side of a long gallery—each contains a bed, a stool, and a bo and in the midst of them is the room for the deaconess, who is, by means her open door, enabled to observe all movements, and prevent all communic tions on the subject of past transgressions. The delinquents are shut into th night-rooms.

In the infant school department, we did not observe any thing differing fr what is to be seen in the best schools of the same style elsewhere, unless might mention an extensive frame of pigeon-holes, each numbered to indic the proprietor, and occupied by pieces of bread. In this Normal School ha been trained teachers who are now engaged in managing the infant populati in many parts of Prussia and Germany.

We crossed the little street, and entered, on the opposite side, the hospital, handsome building entirely of recent erection, in a pretty extensive and neat laid-out garden, where we observed some patients of all ages—the children play or carried in the arms of their tender-looking nurse—the adults resting benches in the sun, for the day was cool, or moving feebly as their reduc strength enabled them.

Our guide, whom we here discovered to be chaplain to the hospital, led first into the apothecary's room, where we saw two sensible, energetic-looki women compounding medicines after the prescription of the physician. Th are licensed by government, serving a regular time to the acquisition of th important branch of knowledge, and are always on the spot to watch the effe of their administrations. The place is fitted up like a druggist's shop at hom We forgot to inquire if the counter, within whose railed-off quarter the chi apothecary stood, is rendered necessary by the shop being frequented by t villagers, which seems probable. The other deaconess was working at a mo tar. From this place we passed to the kitchen, and saw the huge apparat necessary for feeding such a family, and the extra supply required on that fest day, when their family was greatly increased. The plans for keeping food that warm country, the cleanliness and beautiful order of the larder and lau dries, indeed of every corner, was quite remarkable, and the ventilation so pe fect, that even when we ascended to wards occupied by persons in bed, or res ing on the long benches, who looked very ill, the atmosphere was tolerably fres and agreeable. Our conductors dropped here and there a good word to the sic as we passed. In the male wards a part of the attendance seems to be done b men, but each has its quota of deaconesses who have their own charge and r sponsibility. In one chamber we found five women who had joined the esta lishment a few days before, who were engaged in learning the useful art o cutting out clothing, under two instructors. There was something touching the ward of sick children, where we saw many eyes beaming tenderness, an many hearts exercising all the maternal instincts, albeit not mothers. Som who were very sick formed for the time the sole charge of one deaconess, whi three or four might be intrusted to the care of another. In addition to minu watchfulness over the body, there is, as they can bear it, an endeavor to occup the memory with suitable hymns and passages of Scripture, and to engage the minds on subjects that lead them to glorify God by honoring and loving Him i the days of their youth. The chaplain was acquainted with each face, and i owner's little history, and tried to draw out a little repetition of their small sto of Scripture learning. One could not but remark the useful discipline whic such employment must be for the young women who are engaged in it, or fa to observe the loving patience with which one or two met the feverish frac tiousness of their nurslings.

The office of these 'sisters of charity,' which elevates them above the commo sick nurse, and engages them in concerns that touch on eternity, is that of read ing the Scriptures to the sick and aged, and dropping a word of consolatio into the languid ear, while they minister to the bodily wants. This they ar authorized and expected to do, so that, instead of doing it by stealth, as a piou

may do in our hospitals; or, instead of railing on the poor sufferer
out in concern for his soul's health, as an impious one has sometimes
n to do. they breathe balm while they turn the pillow, and speak of
f reconciliation while they endeavor to lull pain. They are by the
midnight hour, and can seize the moment of coolness and clearness
the afflicted—a moment which neither chaplain, nor medical man,
y visitor, may be so happy as to hit upon; and, while they are forbid-
reachers, their living actions, their Christian bearing, and their faith-
, are calculated to drop like balm on the wounded spirit, and have, in
s, accomplished good which we may justly call incalculable, for its
ces are eternal.

amining the excellent arrangement of the sick wards, we found our-
he chapel. It is placed at the lower extremity of the long range of
and so crosses the end of four wards, two on the first, and two on the
ry, the door of entrance to the chapel being placed in the center.
has a folding-door of glass in the side of the place of worship, by
hich the Word of God can sound along even to the remoter beds.
nion occasions, the pastor is accustomed to convey the elements into
s, so that many a fainting soul is thus refreshed, which, in any other
nces, would be denied the privileges of the house of God. There are,
of the chapel, seats where the feeble can recline, and some with
tains, behind which the unhappy or unsightly can find shelter. In
but sacred, place of worship, at three o'clock on that afternoon,
h, were the deaconesses, whose term of training was satisfactorily
close, questioned before the congregation with respect to their wil-
devote themselves to the work of mercy for the next five years, and
ented to the engagement proposed to them, they were solemnly set
rayer. They are now prepared to go to whatever city or country, to
ospital, or Normal Institution, or private family they may be called,
d capacity of the individual of course being consulted; for it must
y explained that there is nothing like a monastic vow of 'obedience
ch' in this affair, and that the engagement is formed subject to being
y the claims of nearer domestic duties, if such should arise. Some
s have been called away to assist their own families, some have
the Institution by entering on the conjugal relation. In truth, un-
for their vocation, they are rather too popular, as making excellent
t while one regards this circumstance with regret as respects the
is delightful to contemplate the sister of charity transformed into the
er own children in the fear of the Lord.

rsing with Mr. Fleidner, before taking leave, on the utility of form-
institution in Scotland, he suggested, as a fundamental and absolute
hat it be ascertained that all who are admitted to the school are per-
ed in the spirit of their minds, and willing, under the guidance of the
t, to devote themselves in humility and love to the service of their
tures for Christ's sake.

Prussian provinces of the Rhineland and Westphalia are united for
and it is under the superintendence of the Protestant Provincial Sy-
ve one hundred deaconesses are now at work in different parts of
Sixty are occupied in seventeen hospitals and orphan-houses at
sden, Frankfort, Worms, Cologne, Elberfeld, &c. Several are en-
arge congregations which have no hospital, and about twenty are
the request of private families to nurse their sick members, &c.
ow at work in the German hospital at Dalston, near London: one
matron of the establishment. It can readily be apprehended how
of language, ideas, methods of preparing food, &c., will render these
nurses to their sick countrymen.

ountry we lack a little of the German simplicity, and are so nice
nctions of rank, and what belongs to our supposed station in society,
excite strong displeasure if we say that there are many single wo-
otland, of the excellent of the earth, who are not so useful in the
they might be; that the reason of this is their want of proper guid-
lecting their work, and of support in its prosecution, and that the
status in society, and the style of character and bearing expected from
ctly what is wanted to confer the necessary energy and steadiness.

> At Kaiserswerth, there are scholars not only of the middle classes, but severa of the higher ranks of life. The king of Prussia, having taken a lively view o the utility of the Institution, is now forming a large model hospital at Berlin—a baroness, trained under Mr. Fleidner, is its destined matron; and twelve well trained deaconesses are without delay to be called into active employment there
>
> The principle on which the deaconess is required to act is that of willingnes to be a servant of Christ alone; to devote herself to the service, without th worldly stimulus of pecuniary emolument, and without over solicitude abou worldly comforts; to do the work of charity and self-denial, out of gratitude t her Savior.
>
> Her wants are all supplied by the Institution, respectably, but without superfluity; while the salary paid annually for her services by the family, parish, o hospital, by which she is employed, is paid to Kaiserswerth. From the fun thus accumulated, the supplies of the deaconesses are derived, and those of them who have suffered in health, in consequence of their services, are by it entirel sustained.
>
> The deaconess, with her healthful, beaming, loving countenance, distinguished from her neighbors only by her dark print gown, a white habit-shirt and cap, (a bit of head-gear that one often misses painfully, even on grey-headed German matrons,) looks all animation, attention, and lively collectedness of spirit.
>
> There is at Kaiserswerth the simplicity of real life in this working-day-world, as exhibited by persons whose actions are under the influence of grateful love to their Lord and Redeemer, and to their fellow-pilgrims."

In 1846, a Seminary for female teachers was established in connection with a new Institution for young ladies, in Friedrickstadt, Berlin. The course extends through two years, and includes the branches and practical exercises before specified. In all teachers intended for governesses, particular attention is paid to music, drawing, and the Italian and French languages, as well as to the literature of the German.

In 1847, a regulation was adopted for the examination of female teachers in the province of Bradenburg. The examination is conducted by a committee consisting of one member from the school-board of the province, and the directors and two teachers of the new seminary in Friedrickstadt. It is confined, unless the applicant desires a certificate for a higher school, to the branches taught in the primary schools. It is conducted by written answers to a few questions in each branch, to be made out without books, and without conference with each other; in conversation on the same subjects and pedagogical points; and in giving trial lessons in teaching. A record is taken of the examination, and if the result is satisfactory, a certificate is issued by the school-board of the Province. If the pupils of the seminary in Friedrickstadt can pass a similar examination before leaving the institution, they are not subjected to any farther examination.

he art of teaching, as now practiced in the primary schools of
vas but imperfectly understood by her schoolmasters only a
f a century ago, and that a knowledge of good methods was
hroughout the kingdom only by the well directed efforts of the
ent, sustained by the self-denying and persevering labors of
icers and educators, in various directions, is evident from the
note appended to Prof. Stowe's address on Normal Schools
hers' Seminaries. The noble sentiment of Dinter, quoted by
we at the opening of his address, "I promised God, that I
ook upon every Prussian peasant child as a being who could
of me before God, if I did not provide for him the best educa-
man and a Christian, which it was possible for me to provide,"
spirit with which some of the school officers of Prussia have
Ve append a brief notice of this excellent man, and model
icer, together with many excellent suggestions by other emi-
hers and officers from other sections of Germany.

PRUSSIAN SCHOOLS, A FEW YEARS AGO.

wing questions and answers are from Dr. Julius's testimony, before
ttee of the British House of Commons, in 1834, respecting the Prus-
System.
remember, from your own knowledge, what the character and attain-
e schoolmasters were previous to the year 1819?"
t recollect; but I know they were very badly composed of non-com-
fficers, organists, and half-drunken people. It has not risen like a
once. Since 1770, there has been much done in Prussia, and through-
ny, for promoting a proper education of teachers, and by them of

own observation has there been any very marked improvement in
er and attainments of schoolmasters, owing to the pains taken to which
eferred?"
decided improvement."
his autobiography, gives some surprising specimens of gross incapa-
hers, even subsequent to 1819. The following anecdotes are from
ting work, *Dinters Leben von ihm selbst beschrieben.*
amination of a school in East Prussia, which was taught by a subal-
dismissed from the army, the teacher gave Dinter a specimen of his
illustration of Scripture narrative. The passage was Luke vii., the
raising the widow's son at Nain. "See, children (says the teacher),
great city, a beautiful city; but even in such a great, beautiful city,
people who must die. *They brought the dead youth out.* See, chil-
the same then as it is now—dead people couldn't go alone—they
arried. *He that was dead began to speak.* This was a sure sign that
e again, for if he had continued dead he couldn't have spoken a word."
er to the King, a dismissed schoolmaster complained that the district
ed to him 200705 dollars. Dinter supposed the man must be insane,
to the physician of the place to inquire. The physician replied that
an was not insane, but only ignorant of the numeration table, writing
stead of 275. Dinter subjoins, "By the help of God, the King, and
very much has now been done to make things better."
ning candidates for the school-teacher's office, Dinter asked one where
m of Prussia was situated. He replied, that he believed it was some-
e southern part of India. He asked another the cause of the ignis-
mmonly called Jack-with-the-lantern. He said they were specters
he devil. Another being asked why he wished to become a school-
plied, that he must *get a living somehow.*

A military man of great influence once urged Dinter to recommend a disabled soldier, in whom he was interested, as a school-teacher. "I will do so," says Dinter, "if he sustains the requisite examination." "O," says the Colonel, "he doesn't know much about school-teaching, but he is a good, moral, steady man, and I hope you will recommend him to oblige me." *D.*—O yes, Colonel, to oblige you, if you in your turn will do me a favor. *Col.*—What is that? *D.*—Get me appointed drum-major in your regiment. True, I can neither beat a drum, nor play a fife; but I am a good, moral, steady man as ever lived.

A rich landholder once said to him, "Why do you wish the peasant children to be educated? it will only make them unruly and disobedient." Dinter replied, "If the masters are wise, and the laws good, the more intelligent the people, the better they will obey."

Dinter complained that the military system of Prussia was a great hinderance to the schools. A nobleman replied that the young men enjoyed the protectio
of the government, and were thereby bound to defend it by arms. Dinter asked if every stick of timber in a house ought first to be used in a fire-engine, because the house was protected by the engine? or whether it would be good policy t
cut down all the trees of an orchard to build a fence with, to keep the hogs fro
eating the fruit?

(C.)

SCHOOL-COUNSELOR DINTER.

Gustavus Frederick Dinter was born at a village near Leipsic, in 1760. H
first distinguished himself as principal of a Teachers' Seminary in Saxony, whenc
he was invited by the Prussian government to the station of School-Counselo
for Eastern Prussia. He resides at Konigsberg, and about ninety days in th
year he spends in visiting the schools of his province, and is incessantly employe
nearly thirteen hours a day for the rest of his time, in the active duties of hi
office; and that he may devote himself the more exclusively to his work, he live
unmarried. He complains that his laborious occupation prevents his writing a
much as he wishes for the public, yet, in addition to his official duties, he lecture
several times a week, during term-time, in the University at Konigsberg, an
always has in his house a number of indigent boys, whose education he superin
tends, and, though poor himself, gives them board and clothing. He has mad
it a rule to spend every Wednesday afternoon, and, if possible, one whole da
in the week besides, in writing for the press; and thus, by making the best us
of every moment of time, though he was nearly forty years old before his ca
reer as an author commenced, he has contrived to publish more than sixty orig
nal works, some of them extending to several volumes, and all of them popula
Of one book, a school catechism, fifty thousand copies were sold previous to 1830
and of his large work, the School-Teacher's Bible, in 9 volumes 8vo, thirty thou
sand copies were sold in less than ten years.

He is often interrupted by persons who are attracted by his fame, or desir
his advice; and while conversing with his visitors, that no time may be lost, h
employs himself in knitting; and thus not only supplies himself with stocking
and mittens, suited to that cold climate, but always has some to give away t
indigent students and other poor people. His disinterestedness is quite equal t
his activity, and of the income of his publications, he devotes annually near
five hundred dollars to benevolent purposes. Unweariedly industrious, an
rigidly economical as he is, he lays up nothing for himself. He says, "I am on
of those happy ones, who, when the question is put to them, 'Lack ye any thing
(Luke xxii. 35), can answer with joy, 'Lord, nothing.' To have more than on
can use is superfluity; and I do not see how this can make any one happ
People often laugh at me, because I will not incur the expense of drinking win
and because I do not wear richer clothing, and live in a more costly style. Laug
away, good people; the poor boys, also, whose education I pay for, and for who
besides, I can spare a few dollars for Christmas gifts, and new-year's present
they have their laugh too."

Toward the close of his autobiography, he says respecting the King of Pru
sia, "I live happily under Frederick William; he has just given me one hundre

thousand dollars to build churches with in destitute places; he has a new Teachers' Seminary for my poor Polanders, and he has so ful-very wish for the good of posterity, that I can myself hope to live to ie when there shall be no schoolmaster in Prussia more poorly paid mon laborer. He has never hesitated, during the whole term of my rant me any reasonable request for the helping forward of the school-lod bless him! I am with all my heart a Prussian. And now, my en ye hear that old Dinter is dead, say, 'May he rest in peace; he rious, good-hearted, religious man; he was a Christian.'"

ıch men in the United States would effect a wonderful change in the ie of our educational efforts.

(D.)

IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOOL-TEACHERS.

ommencement of the late school efforts in Prussia, for the benefit of ready in the profession who had not possessed the advantages of a ining, it was the custom for them to assemble during the weeks of their schools, and, under the care of a competent teacher, go through ourse of lessons for their improvement. Of the entire course a care-nute journal was kept and transmitted to the government. The fol-rom the journal of a four weeks' course of this kind, which was held vald in 1821, under the charge of School-Counselor Bernhardt. The his special approbation of this journal, and caused a large number of e printed and circulated throughout the kingdom. The Minister of ruction expresses himself respecting it in the following terms:—

ew presented and acted upon by School-Counselor Bernhardt, that ant point is not the quantity and variety of knowledge communicated, dity and accuracy; and that the foundation of all true culture consists ation to piety, the fear of God, and Christian humility; and, accord-those dispositions, before all things else, must be awakened and con-teachers, that thereby they may exercise love, long-suffering, and s, in their difficult and laborious calling—these principles are the only s, according to which the education of teachers every where, and in an and ought to be conducted, notwithstanding the regard which must he peculiar circumstances and the intellectual condition of particular nd communities. The Ministry hereby enjoin it anew upon the Re-only to make these principles their guide in their own labors in the hools and Teachers' Seminaries, but also to commend and urge them t emphatic manner on all teachers and pupils in their jurisdiction. will be faithfully done, the Ministry expect with so much the more because in this way alone can the supreme will of his Majesty the atedly and earnestly expressed, be fulfilled. Of the manner in which cy execute this order, the Ministry expect a Report, and only remark at as many copies of the journal as may be needed will be supplied."

ngly religious character of the instructions in the following journal will ; but will any *Christian* find fault with this characteristic, or with the Ministry for commending it?

nal gives an account of the employment of every hour in the day, from ix in the morning to a quarter before nine in the evening. Instead of tracts from different parts of it, I here present the entire journal for eek of the course, that the reader may have the better opportunity of own judgment on the real merits of the system.

FOURTH WEEK.

, *Oct.* 22.—A. M. 6½–7. Meditation. Teachers and parents, forget not children are men, and that, as such, they have the ability to become . God will have all men to come to the knowledge of the truth. As hildren have the dignity of men, and a right to life, cultivation, honor, This is a holy, inalienable right, that is, no man can divest himself of it without ceasing to be a man. 7–8½. Bible instruction. Reading the Bibl and verbal analysis of what is read. Jesus in the wilderness. 9–12. Writin Exercise in small letters. P. M. 2–5. Writing as before. 5½–7. Singing. 8–8 Meditation. Our schools should be Christian schools for Christian children, an Jesus Christ should be daily the chief teacher. One thing is needful. Jesu Christ, the same yesterday, to-day, and forever. The great end of our school therefore, is the instruction of children in Christianity; or the knowledge of hea enly truths in hope of eternal life; and to answer the question, What must I d to be saved? Our children, as they grow up, must be able to say, from the co viction of their hearts, We know and are sure that thou art the Christ, the So of the living God. Beloved teachers, teach no Christianity without Christ, an know that there cannot be a living faith without knowledge and love.

Tuesday, Oct. 23.—A. M. 6–7. Meditation. Christian schools are the garde of God's Spirit, and the plantations of humanity, and, therefore, holy places. Ho dreadful is this place! This is none other than the house of God. Teache venerate your schools—regard the sacred as sacred. 7–8½. Bible instructio Reading of the Bible and verbal analysis of what is read. Luke xv. 1–10. 8½– Catechism. Repeating the second article with proper emphasis, and the nece sary explanation of terms. 10–12. Writing. Exercise in German capitals, wit the writing of syllables and words. P. M. 1–4. General repetition of the instru tions for school-teachers given during the month. 4–5. Brief instruction respec ing school discipline and school laws. 5–7. Singing. 8–8½. Meditation. Teac ers, you should make your school a house of prayer, not a den of murdere Thou shalt not kill—that is, thou shalt do no injury to the souls of thy childre This you will do if you are an ungodly teacher, if you neglect your duty, if yo keep no order or discipline in your school, if you instruct the children badly, not at all, and set before them an injurious example. The children will be i jured also by hurrying through the school-prayers, the texts, and catechism, an by all thoughtless reading and committing to memory. May God help you!

Wednesday, Oct. 24.—6–6¾. Meditation. Dear teachers, you labor for the go of mankind and the kingdom of God; be, therefore, God's instruments and c workers. Thy kingdom come. In all things approving ourselves as the ministe of God. 6¾–8½. Bible instruction as before, John iv. 1–15. 8½–9. Catechism. Th correct and emphatic reading and repeating of the first section, with brief expl nation of terms. 10–12. Instruction in school discipline and school laws. P. 1–3. Instruction in the cultivation of fruit-trees. For instruction in this branc of economy, the school is arranged in six divisions, each under the care of teacher acquainted with the business, with whom they go into an orchard, an under his inspection perform all the necessary work. General principles an directions are written in a book, of which each student has a copy. More coo ing is the shade, and more sweet the fruit, of the tree which thine own han have planted and cherished. 3–5. Instruction in school discipline and scho laws. 5¼–½. Singing. 8–9. Meditation. The Christian school-teacher is also good husband and father. Blameless, the husband of one wife, vigilant, sobe of good behavior, apt to teach, not given to wine, no striker, not greedy of filth lucre, patient, not a brawler, not covetous, one that ruleth well his own hous having his children in subjection, with all gravity. He that readeth, let hi understand.

Thursday, Oct. 25.—A. M. 6–6¾. Meditation. Dear teachers, do all in you power to live in harmony and peace with your districts, that you may be helper of the parents in the bringing up of their children. Endeavor to mai tain the unity of the Spirit in the bond of peace. As much as in you lies, liv peaceably with all men. 6¾–9. Bible instruction as before, Luke vii. 11–1 Reading by sentences, by words, by syllables, by letters. Reading according the sense, with questions as to the meaning. Understandest thou what tho readest? 10–11. Instructions as to prayer in schools. Forms of prayer suitab for teachers and children are copied and committed to memory. Lord, teach u to pray. 11–12. Writing. Exercise in capitals and writing words. P. M. 2– Instruction respecting prayer in the family and in the school. Forms of praye for morning and evening, and at the table, are copied, with instructions th school children should commit them to memory, that they may aid their paren to an edifying performance of the duty of family worship; that, as the scho

the family, so the family also may help the school. Use not vain
. 3-5. Bible instruction. General views of the contents of the Bible,
he teacher may communicate, analyze, and explain them to his chil-
ly, at the commencement of the winter and summer terms. 5½-7.
8-9. Meditation. Teachers, acquire the confidence and love of your
ut never forsake the direct path of duty. Fear God, do right, and be
o man. The world, with its lusts, passeth away, but he that doeth the
l shall abide forever.

Oct. 26.—Meditation. Teachers, hearken to the preacher, and labor
ands; for he is placed over the Church of God, who will have the
n aid to the Church. Remember them that labor among you, and are
n the Lord, and esteem them highly in love for their works' sake.
he that planteth any thing, nor he that watereth any thing, but God
the increase. 7-9. Bible instruction. Summary of the contents of
to be committed to memory by children from ten to fifteen years of
2. Bible instruction. Brief statement of the contents of the historical
he New Testament. P. M. 1-5. Bible instruction. Contents of the
nd prophetical books of the New Testament. Selection of the pas-
e New Testament proper to be read in a country school. A guide
s to the use of the Bible in schools. 5-7. Singing. 8-9. Meditation.
love, as a good teacher, thy King and thy father-land; and awake
eelings and sentiments in the hearts of thy children. Fear God, honor
eek the good of the country in which you dwell, for when it goes well
goes well with thee.

y, *Oct.* 27.—6-6½. Meditation. By the life in the family, the school,
urch, our heavenly Father would educate us and our children for our
l heavenly home; therefore parents, teachers, and preachers, should
in hand. One soweth and another reapeth. I have laid the founda-
er buildeth thereon; and let every man take heed how he buildeth
Means of education: 1. In the family—the parents, domestic life, hab-
he school—the teacher, the instruction, the discipline; 3. In the church
aching, the word, the sacraments. 6½-9½. Bible instruction. Rules
teacher should observe in reading the Bible. In analyzing it. In re-
e contents of the Old Testament books, and selections from them for
ritten instructions are given and copied, on account of the shortness
e which is here given to this topic. 10-12. Bible instruction. Gen-
tion. P. M. 1-4. Bible instruction. General repetition. 4-5. Reading.
of the German language, with written exercises. 7-10½. Review
rse of instruction and the journal. 10½-12. Meditation. The prayer
ohn xvii.), with particular reference to our approaching separation.

Oct. 28.—6½-9. Morning prayer. Catechism. Close of the term. (In
r on a hill at sunset) singing and prayer. Address by the head teacher.
hat our teacher would say to us when we separate from him. 1. What
earned apply well, and follow it faithfully. If ye know these things,
ye if ye do them. 2. Learn to see more and more clearly that you
ittle. We know in part. 3. Be continually learning, and never get
e man has never lived who has learned all that he might. 4. Be
at you would have your children become. Become as little children.
's grace be your highest good, and let it strengthen you in the diffi-
ch you must encounter. My grace is sufficient for thee—my strength
n thy weakness. 6. Keep constantly in mind the Lord Jesus Christ.
us an example that we should follow his steps. Hymn—Lord Jesus
rken thou to us. Prayer. Benediction.

of the hours spent in different studies during the four weeks. Arith-
-seven; writing, fifty-six; Bible, twenty-five; meditation, thirty-six;
ects, twenty-six; singing, twenty-eight. Total, two hundred and
. From nine to ten, in the morning, was generally spent in walking to-
one hour in the afternoon was sometimes spent in the same manner.

lectures were given on the following topics: 1. Directions to teachers
nowledge and right use of the Bible in schools. 2. Directions to teach-
ing instruction in writing. 3. Directions for exercises in mental arith-
Instructions respecting school discipline and school laws. 5. A col-

lection of prayers for the school and family, with directions to teachers. 6. The German parts of speech, and how they may be best taught in a country school 7. The day-book.

Printed books were the following: 1. Dinter's Arithmetic. 2. Dinter on Guarding against Fires. 3. Brief Biography of Luther. 4. On the Cultivation of Fruit-Trees. 5. German Grammar. 6. Baumgarten's Letter-Writer for Country Schools. 7. Luther's Catechism.

That which can be learned and practiced in the short space of a few weeks, is only a little—a very little. But it is not of so much importance that we have more knowledge than others; but most depends on this, that I have the right disposition; and that I thoroughly understand and faithfully follow out the little which I do know.

God help me, that I may give all which I have to my school; and that I, with my dear children, may, above all things, strive after that which is from above. Father in heaven, grant us strength and love for this.

BERNARD OVERBERG.

Among the many devoted teachers and educators, whose example and teachings breathed a new spirit into the schools of Germany, we have been particularly impressed with the character and views of Bernard Overberg, who for thirty years was in the habit of meeting the teachers of the neighborhood of Munster, twice a year during their vacations, and instructing them in the best modes of conducting their schools, and especially in imparting religious instruction. We make the following extracts mainly from a memoir of Bernard Overberg, by Professor Schubert, of Munster.

In 1780, he became officiating vicar of Everswinkel, and many even yet can remember his powers as a spiritual guide and teacher, and the blessings which attended him. His chief anxiety was for the religious education of the children of the parish, and this at his request was wholly given up to him by the rector. In three years his manner of teaching became so perfect, that the minister Prince Furstenberg was induced to think of appointing him to the normal school* at Munster. But first he determined to hear the teaching himself, and getting into his carriage on Sunday, when he knew Overberg would catechise, he told the post boys to bring him to Everswinkel exactly at two o'clock. He thus got into the church unobserved, and listening unseen, found his expectation exceeded, and therefore offered the situation immediately. Overberg's disposition and humility inclined him to remain amongst the countrymen who were attached to him, but the offer was really a command from his vicar-general, (which Furstenberg then was,) and he had only to comply. On being desired to name his own salary, his modesty asked only for 200 thalers, (about $150,) with board and lodging in the episcopal seminary at Munster. He entered this, March, 1783, and here he died as principal, in 1826.

The leading object of his intercourse with all, both old and young, with whom he came in contact, was to implant and cultivate a spiritual principle; a principle coming from God's spirit and continually nourished by it alone, whilst he believed the means for obtaining this to be clear and impressive views of the truth and power of the Christian religion laid deeply in the character during childhood. The relation and intercourse between God and man either by natural or revealed means was the great object of his instruction, and being so pervaded by this godliness himself, his pupils became in some degree warmed by it. "Only that which comes from the heart can reach the heart," was a favorite saying of his; and all who have heard him, agree in stating that a tone of cheerful piety seemed to the studies, even the common reading, writing, arithmetic, mensura- /hilst the intellectual faculties thus developed were more easily brought power of the will, when the moral faculties were in healthy exercise. l as his instruction generally was, he avoided the extreme in which it l and its attendant error of cultivating the memory of children at the their reflecting, and still more, their moral powers. He never began ıt truths of religion, &c., but with the imagination and actual experi- children; so that the answer was not mere words or notions of the ıt the enlargement of existing ideas. His object was not so much to ation, as to give such information and such views of things, as would ll the good and amiable points of the character, and repress the

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* Not a regular normal school, but a gathering of teachers for special instruction in methods similar to our teachers' institutes.

of schoolmaster in the district of Munster, was at that time performed populous parishes by men who, intending to be clergymen, had gone part of the studies at the gymnasium, and then stopped for want of nts, or other causes; but in the smaller parishes and scattered country s performed by laborers, who, teaching in winter, returned to their mmer. By far the greatest number of them were, of course, very l unfit for any intelligent teaching; but their pay was poor in propor- any, having no room, made use of some bakehouse, or even an old out a stove, in the cold nights of winter. To tempt them to an inter- ment, Furstenberg began with an external one; and for this, commis- berg to visit all the village schools of the district. Some of the bad, and unlicensed were closed, and instead of two or three inconvenient, onvenient erected; then every schoolmaster who offered himself for , and passed it creditably, had a yearly salary secured him of twenty, en forty thalers, (each about 75 cents,) according to the population of The examination was to be repeated every three years, and they who nprove themselves were advised to attend the normal school at Mun- expenses of this attendance were all to be paid for them; and in order night be no material omission of their school duties, the attendance at school was restricted to the usual time of their vacation, from August eginning of November. On this being settled, from twenty to thirty asters attended Overberg, and most thoroughly exercised his patience , by their indescribable helplessness and incapacity for learning; from ve, and from two to five, he instructed them in the principles of teach- gion, in Scripture history, in reading, writing, and arithmetic. He epared himself for this, by one and a half hour's study; and he spent the day in reading with the most backward. Hopeless as all this ed at first, in a few years the result was rich in blessings.

nentioned in the introduction, Overberg's zeal for the welfare of the or produced in many others a similar feeling. Pupils soon came to his ose fervent wish was to become efficient Christian teachers. The these influenced some of the more indolent; and many of the school- nded him, not only as long as government paid their expenses, but for afterwards. Ignorant and unpolished as were the greatest number first, they scarcely ever required a reproof from him, feeling respect when they saw his estimable character shine forth in its simplicity ness. Their studies commenced with prayer; and the dullest heart been, in some degree, moved when Overberg entered and began, ly Ghost;" whilst his simplicity of manner, his want of all appearance learning, with his power and fervor, struck even those most accus- eaching. The source from whence he obtained all this may be seen in his diary.

very thing, 1st, the love of God be the moving principle; 2d, the will guiding clue; 3d, the glory of God the end. When this is done, then alk before God and be perfect." Or more concisely, "Do and suffer from love to God, according to God's will and God's glory." Again, 5, 1791, at the end of the course, having thanked God for his support, s, "In previous years I felt more ashamed, having more reliance on vers, and more inclination to the vanity of pleasing men. This year

Thou hast given me a stronger feeling of my weakness, more confidence in Thee, and greater desire to please Thee only."

His extreme care in previous preparation, even for teaching the children of the free school, will be seen by a subsequent extract; and the following shows clearly the great conscientiousness with which he performed the details of his daily instruction, and particularly that of the young communicants.

"April 12, 1790. I thank Thee, O Father in heaven, for the strength Thou gavest me when instructing the children yesterday for the first communion; support, O Jesus, those whom Thou hast thus fed with thy flesh and blood; supply by thy grace what through my fault or theirs was displeasing in their hearts to Thee; and help me to avoid those faults in future. I began too late to watch their conduct, in order to know their hearts, and so prepare them for thy advent. I persuaded myself I could make amends by my instruction, though this evidently requires observation of the character before. Thou knowest, indeed, that I often strove to instruct them from the purest motives; but how often, when teaching, did vanity come in, and how oft get command over me! I frequently observed this at the time, and, struggling against it, got confused, obscure, and injured the children in consequence. Often, when led captive by vanity, I said something or left something unsaid, which I would not have done, had thy glory and the salvation of the children been my sole object; and this was particularly the case when strangers were present.

"Writing out as much as possible previously was some safeguard against this folly, though it took away from the freedom and more touching simplicity of the lecture.

"My getting confused and annoyed when the instruction did not go on as I wished, showed me what mixed motives yet governed me; my satisfaction depended not so much on my own conduct, as on the result of the satisfaction it gave to others; and although I struggled against all of this, it was not so earnestly as I ought to have done. O Lord Jesus, have mercy upon me, and blot out all my misdeeds! Make me a clean heart, and so shall I teach thy babes thy way!

"In order to avoid these faults in future, I will now take down the names of those who will probably attend the communion next year; so that I may observe the state of their heart and mind, during the whole time. I will pray for them; and when I think it will do good, I will mention them in the public prayers of the school. But, Lord, how can I have this singleness of view? Thou must give it, and the strength to act accordingly; I will fight, unwilling though I be, and do Thou grant that I may endure the fight to the end!"

The above applies to the Lorraine free school, to which he paid constant attention when conducting the normal school. But to recur to his plan of teaching in this, we may remark his practice of explaining and illustrating, by examples, the principles of moral philosophy on which teachers ought to proceed. His power of illustrative narration being very great, he could, when necessary, fill up the details of the picture so faithfully, that every one entered into it, and would probably recollect some example from their own experience. Once, when illustrating some error in teaching, an old schoolmaster, struck with the ideal picture, cried out in low German, "Oh, Mr. Overberg, that is just what is done amongst us!" Frequently his pictures were highly comical, but respect for him was such as to prevent any one giving way to their feelings. In short, such was the varied talent shown in his lectures, that persons quite indifferent to the subject would crowd to hear them.

Overberg was an admirer of nature in the highest and noblest sense, and in the wonders of creation he saw a representation of the Deity. Every leaf, every flower was to him a proof of the power, and goodness, and wisdom of God, and he must have accustomed himself to raise his views from the creature to the Creator from his earliest years, it having, as he said, become a second nature to him. He earnestly impressed upon the teachers the pious consideration of the works of creation, giving them directions for it, and urging them to turn the attention of the children to them as early as possible. He thought that a teacher in the country ought occasionally to give his lessons in the open air, and so teach the children to observe for themselves the end for which every thing is made, and how perfectly d to it; whilst views of the power and wisdom of God should thus be to lectures on religion.

, however, as was the information given to the pupils, it was not more example of friendliness, humility, and patience which Overberg showed emselves; as when having twice clearly explained some very simple vould quietly go over it again, if the answer of the pupil made it probanot clearly comprehended, and thus the other pupils would see in pracs meant by adapting a subject to the powers of comprehension of the hout omitting any principle.

ruction was always closed by one of the church hymns to which he was l, and professed even in one of his latter years to have been much benhe German hymn in the evening service of a village church. "Were iating priest, (said he,) I would always use such a German litany a Latin vesper. How impressive is that one beginning 'Have pity, c.

onclusion of the course, the students were examined, and provided with and subsequently promoted according to their merit.

s he, under God, not merely the founder but the supporter of a system n rich in blessings to his country, but besides this he had also the erit of educating a class of female teachers to which probably there is nilar elsewhere. Young women, not from necessity but piety, attended s lectures in the normal school, and his catechising in the free school, jority resisting subsequent temptations to give up their labors, continued them through life. These were appointed to different girls' schools, sults were so good, and subsequently so notorious, that many of them or into other countries, whilst others as readers or governesses became private families. He used to say that women made better teachers and he regretted exceedingly that there was no normal school estabhem at the same time with that at Büren.

ruction in the Lorraine cloister school consisted in some hours being times a week to religion, Bible history, and arithmetic; to this, and to the catechising the children in the church every Sunday, there ns of all ranks, thinking that they then saw in Overberg a faithful folim who said, "Suffer little children," &c. How important he felt this of the children to be, may be seen from the following extract from his

y 15, 1790. This morning I went into the school without sufficient pre-O God! help me to improve in this. It is a delusion to imagine that s more necessary or ought to be preferred to this; want of preparation y faults after it, the instruction becomes dry, confused, without point, hence the children are puzzled, their attention distracted, and the emecomes disagreeable to them and myself. I must also be very careful o much into details; into too extended views, and become too learned e ones; to comprehend and retain one good point is better for them ar ten and understand none well, or to miss the most important whilst the others.

help me ever more and more to imitate the manner of teaching of thy , so divinely simple, short, clear, and easily remembered. Grant, that opose any thing to the children, I may ask myself, 'Is it necessary? ? Is there not something more useful, which ought to be preferred to ufficiently comprehensible? What is my object in proposing it? Will nown, give them only an appearance of learning, &c.? If so, away

ry 7, 1790. Thou art teaching me, O my God, more and more for my ence, that of myself I can do nothing. When I fear that the teaching hast committed to me will not go on well, then I am surprised at its d the contrary happens when I say, 'this time I shall succeed.' Is intimation from Thee, not to trust on my own strength? May thy me to translate this into practice. O God, how many are thy favors; I observed that Thou takest away my usual impediment to clear and nce, whenever I have to speak in the church to the children. Ever grant me, O Lord, the grace, (undeserving though I be, from having so frequently withstood it,) the grace, that in all I do, particularly as regards these children, I may look to thy will alone. O Father, my Father in Christ Jesus, do Thou be with me, that I do not make the instruction of thy little ones needlessly difficult, giving them hard food instead of milk; chaff, instead of corn; attending too much to some, and neglecting others. Thou hast permitted me to enter upon a new way of instruction; if it be not better, if it be not thy will that I should go on in it, do thou call me back; if it be thy will, O make it so clear to me, that I err not, and lead the children into by-paths, from which I must lead them back again. I am unworthy of thy favor, but Thou wilt not turn away from these little ones, sanctified by the blood of thy Son, and hence I rely on thy assistance May I be wholly thine, and so do more for thy honor and the good of others. Oh, may not the trust which others place in me be disappointed."

Thus did Overberg perform the apparently simple and easy duty of teaching children with a deep and holy earnestness, as in God's sight, and in the strength obtained by prayer. He knew and confessed what an important charge is the education of youth in prayer and filial intercourse with God..

Such was his earnestness in the common daily teaching, and the blessings for which he prayed, attended it, not merely on the sensitive hearts of the young, but it softened also many hardened by age; still his earnestness was doubled when the time for the sacrament drew near. He latterly took down, as we have said before, the names of the probable communicants a year before, and began carefully to observe the state of each, and direct them accordingly; the more immediate instruction was given during an hour and a half daily during Lent, till the Third Sunday after Easter. He then gave them a compendium of the doctrines of Christianity, and to guard himself against digressions, he wrote out his lectures at length daily. These were attended by many adult hearers, particularly of the theological students, many of whom carried away the matter in their note books, however little they might be warmed by all the piety which animated the author. On Thursdays and Sundays during Lent, no strangers were admitted, because these days were devoted to repetition and examination in previous lessons. Besides this public teaching, he instructed, exhorted, and warned them unceasingly in private, according to the character and circumstances of each. He led them as their confessor, to reflect on the truths of salvation, to prayer, and particularly to careful examination of conscience.

From time to time he prayed in the school for these communicants, and as the day approached, he sent for the parents, put before them their duty to their children, particularly that of personal example, and he made them promise to fullfil it. Whilst the children promised in writing that they would walk according to the gospel, avoiding the danger to their faith and virtue, and using the means of grace; for himself, his earnest prayer was that he might be influenced in the selection of candidates, by nothing but their piety, and such was his zeal and anxiety in all this, that he frequently had some illness when it was over.

During the course of the year, after the first sacrament, the communicants were required to go to the Lord's table, from time to time together, and he always prepared them for it.

Thus had he labored in this, and the weekly instruction of the children for twenty-seven years, in the school of the Lorraine cloister; when this was closed, and the school made parochial, and transferred to the parish priest, who relieved him from the labor.

The following is a specimen of his manner of addressing his normal pupils:

My beloved friends:—If you cherish sentiments of true benevolence, if the welfare of your scholars be of any importance or value to you, engrave deeply on your hearts the recommendations which I am about to address to you, and in the performance of the duties of your vocation, have them constantly presented to your mind.

1. *If you desire to honor God, let there be no levity or carelessness in your conduct.*

n not use too much caution in this respect in the presence of your eir eyes are always directed to you, and are certainly far more penetra- is generally imagined. They discover in you faults which you are not of yourself, and these faults often shock them more, and render you temptible in their eyes, than other and much greater ones would do in f men of your own age. Forget yourself but in a single instance, and roduce on them an impression, deeper than all your good lessons, and rts you have made for them. Be careful, then, even in the smallest much as possible, not only not to give them a bad example, but even an hich can not in all points be safely followed; for your example acts with r on their character; it may produce immense good, or infinitely greater dren pay more attention to the example of their superiors than to their wever good and salutary they may be; and since they have not dis- to distinguish a slight and very excusable fault from one much greater, ess natural to humanity from an action intentionally bad, they are often d at the last than at the first. It is for this reason that we never can *dent* in the presence of such spectators and such judges. It is precisely npany, more than in any other, that it is necessary to be *most watchful self;* and their society is, consequently, an excellent means of self-im- . Avoid, therefore, not only those vices which would cover you with he eyes of all good men, but also those defects and weaknesses which not like your pupils to imitate, if even your equals would not notice

h, on all occasions, not only by your words, but by your conduct and

ion thus given, is for your pupils, not only the most efficacious, but also asy. Thus, would you accustom them to neatness? let them see in you abit, while receiving your instructions on this subject; if you are your- ly in your clothes and in your person, what will they think of your les- atness? Would you form them to continuous activity? never be idle work cheerfully; and never let them see you without occupation. n introduce order in your school? never let them see any disorder, our own person or your affairs. Let good order be obvious in the class, bitation, in your household. He who throws every thing into confusion, when he wants any thing, has sometimes to seek it in one corner, and in another, gives to his scholars a very sorry example of good order. wish to teach them truth and fidelity? never let any thing contrary to eed from your own mouth, even in playfulness, lest this playfulness be ood; never make a promise or a threat which you can not or will not ; never leave a promise or a threat unperformed which you have made nally, lest a motive should be attributed to you which would place you of your pupils in the shade of suspicion of want of integrity.

re in your pupils obedience to, and respect for, their relations and riors; and take particular care not to weaken the consideration which ught to have for their parents.

those tutors commit a great sin, who never display more eloquence than chatter in the presence of your pupils on the awkwardness and igno- en of a certain age, or of old men, because they have not learned this ng which is now taught at the schools? By acting thus, they not only eir children of all respect for their parents, which leads to the most fatal ces, but they also inspire them with an insupportable pride, which makes ise all that may be said or done by those older than themselves.

the fear of God be visible in your actions, and in your manner on all especially in teaching religion.

t always the most serious displeasure when your pupils say or do any rary to the holy reverence which we owe to God, and take care your- pronounce the name of God or of your Saviour with levity. Seek to own heart deeply impressed when you speak of truths of great import- example, of the paternal goodness of God toward men; of his mercy to sinners; in the sufferings and death of Christ; of the obedience and love which led him to submit to these sufferings and this death; of the favor which he has procured for us; of the ordinances which he has instituted in remembrance of his death; of the great rewards and terrible punishments of eternity, &c. Your emotion will manifest itself in your exterior deportment; it will render your words impressive, and will awaken like emotions in the hearts of your auditors. A simple tear which may start in the eye of the master, and which is not the effect of art, but the involuntary expression of a heart truly softened and penetrated by the importance of the subject, acts very powerfully on the hearts of children, and often produces in them impressions and resolutions which the most lively representations could not have effected.

5. *By active compassion for the misfortunes of your neighbors, you can excite in the children pity, and teach them the right manner of sympathizing with their fellow creatures, in joy and in adversity.*

Your manner of conducting yourself toward your pupils, will contribute much toward making them either courteous and charitable men, or morose and indifferent to their duties. If you act toward them as a good father; if all your conduct shows them your love; that you labor with all your power for their real good, and to be useful to them as much as possible; and (because you love them) that you willingly render them services, and procure pleasures for them, (which may be often in themselves the merest trifles,) you will awaken in many of them, love, and the desire to oblige, for *love is contagious.* They will learn also from you, to render voluntary service to their companions and to others; this will be the result of your example. *In a word, each virtue will appear to them more amiable, and more worthy of being imitated; and you will be more sure than ever, that they will seek to acquire it, if it be manifest in your conduct.*

Oh, you can do much, yes, very much, to form the hearts of your pupils, if you will instruct them at the same time by your life and by your precepts. The best of opportunities is offered to you; they are confided to your care *precisely* at the age when the instinct of curiosity and imitation acts with the greatest force; when you have them daily with you, and can thus instill gradually according to their capacity, good doctrines and good sentiments. *A drop which falls incessantly wears the hardest stones;* and much more easily can impressions be made on the unformed characters of children. The faults which perhaps they may have when you enter into relation with them, are not so deeply rooted that they can not be removed, if you give to the work attention and zeal. You can really produce more substantial good in their hearts, than their pastors can at a more advanced age. To destroy rooted vices is a difficult task, and often impossible to be accomplished, whatever efforts may be tried; but to prevent them, to stifle them in their commencement, to fashion the mind when it is still pliant; this is a much easier work, and one which, by the blessing of God, will succeed, if the master teach by his actions, as well as by precept. Do not shrink from the task; it is the most noble, the most respectable, the most imposing that you can undertake.

Do not allow yourself to be frightened or arrested in a work so excellent, by the difficulties which it presents, many of which exist only in your imagination. The duty to which I now exhort you, that of leading a life irreproachable and edifying before God and before the children, is a duty obligatory upon you as Christians; it ought to be of importance to you even if you should not be schoolmasters; but *as such*, as directors of youth, who are to be formed by your teaching and by your example, you are *doubly* engaged to this duty.

If, then, you love yourselves; if you love these little ones confided to your care, and placed under your responsibility; if you love Him who is their Saviour and yours, follow also his example on this point, teaching like him by words and actions; be to your pupils on all occasions, "a pattern of good works." (Titus ii. 7.) "Let your light so shine before them, that they, seeing your good works, may do likewise, and with you, glorify your Father who is in heaven."

We add a few suggestions in the same spirit by Zeller, and Beckendorf—translated from "Le Miroir des Instituteurs, ou Conseils sur l' Education."

C. B. ZELLER.

ave, in our brief sketch of the history of primary education in
y, alluded to the enthusiastic labors of Zeller, a pupil of Pesta-
The following fragment by him on the "Influence of Example"
cher, exhibit the spirit with which he regarded the work of
n.

minds can at all times be acted upon without words, simply by example.
er any person is from what he ought to be, the more does he experience
ence. The less his mind is developed, the more is he urged by a pro-
imitate, to direct and govern himself according to what he sees and
he society of other men, better, older, stronger, more skillful, and more
ed than himself. This is a truth that can not be too often dwelt upon,
in these days, when we attribute so many wonders to the power of
Yes; example alone, a life of practice without display, exercises a most
nfluence on the soul, the character, and the will; for the *conduct* of a
e true expression of his being, and gives a tone to (or animates) every
und him; consequently nothing can remain uninfluenced within the
a living being. There emanates from the active noiseless life of a single
power which is to others, either "a savour of life unto life, or a savour
nto death."

plains to us why parents, simple, and without culture, especially mothers,
ps have never opened a book on education, and speak very little to their
yet offer them every day the example of a lively affection, and a well-
though retired life, bestow an excellent education; while, on the other
see the children of well instructed parents frequently turn out ill, who
acted upon by words alone, rather than by example, and who contem-
nd them a class of beings who exercise no good moral influence. Alas!
rents and instructors knew how much power there is in being virtuous,
ittle in only *appearing* to be so!

an never be any efficacious or happy influence in the example of a
Many people avoid showing before children what they really are; they
act in their presence as persons of morality, modesty, and piety; but it
cloak to cover their internal corruption, their self love, and want of
These are hypocrites; their piety is but babbling, a tongue which they
ned, as we learn a foreign language, but it is not their mother tongue;
of no greater value than the tree which produces it.

rns all who are called to occupy themselves in education, to consider the
taught by a well beloved disciple of the Saviour, in these words: "Be
ample of the believers, in word, in conversation, in charity, in spirit, in
urity." 1 Tim. iv. 12. "In all things showing thyself a pattern of
s; in doctrine showing uncorruptness, gravity, sincerity, sound speech,
ot be condemned; that he that is of the contrary part may be ashamed,
evil thing to say of you." Titus ii. 7, 8.

e address the following exhortations to all persons, parents or tutors,
charged with the task of education, beseeching them to give serious
hereto.

what the children ought to be.
what they ought to do.
d what they should avoid.
always that, not only in the presence of the children, but also in their
our conduct may serve them for an example.
any among them defective? *examine what you are yourself*, what you
ou avoid; in a word, your whole conduct.
ou discover in yourself defects, sins, wanderings? Begin by improving
nd seek afterwards to improve your children.
k well that those by whom you are surrounded, are often only the re
yourself.
u lead a life of penitence, and seek daily to have grace given you, it will
d to you, and through you to your children.

9. If you always seek Divine guidance, your children will more willingly be directed by you.

10. The more obedient you are to God, the more obedient will your children be to you; thus in his childhood the wise Solomon asked of the Lord "an obedient heart," in order to be able to judge and govern his people.

11. As soon as the master becomes lukewarm in communion with God, that lukewarmness will extend itself among his pupils.

12. That which forms a wall of separation between God and yourself, will be a source of evil to your children.

13. An example in which love does not form a chief feature, is but as the light of the moon; it is cold and feeble.

14. An example animated by an ardent and sincere love, shines like the sun; it warms and invigorates.

BECKENDORF.

The following questions were prepared by School-Counselor Beckendorf for the teachers of primary schools in Prussia.

1. On awaking this morning, did I think first of God, or of the things of the world?

2. In commencing the day, have I consecrated myself anew in prayer to my God and Saviour?

3. Have I implored his blessing on the labors of the day, especially seeking his favor for the children confided to my care?

4. Have I besought him especially for such of the children as have the greatest need of assistance?

5. Have I commenced the day full of strength and confidence in God?

6. Have I sufficiently reflected, before school hours, on what I have to do through the day?

7. Have I suitably prepared myself for my duties?

8. Are my cares extended equally to all my pupils, or do I manifest more interest in some than I do in others?

9. Has my attention been more particularly directed, and according to their need, to those among them who were weaker or more idle than the rest?

10. Or, consulting only my own taste, have I occupied myself more willingly with the most intelligent, and those most desirous of being instructed?

11. In what manner have I influenced their moral progress?

12. With regard to that which is exterior, have I required order, quietness, suitable manners, cleanliness?

13. Have I not been guilty of any negligence in these respects, from idleness or inattention?

14. Have I not from disgust, abandoned to their evil propensities, some children who resisted all my efforts?

15. Have I not, without confessing it to myself, condemned some among them as incorrigible?

16. And have I not thus neglected one of my most important duties; that of never despairing of the improvement of a single child confided to me?

17. When it has been necessary to censure, punish, or recall to duty by exhortation, have I done it with calmness, reflection, and in an impressive manner?

18. Or have I yielded to precipitancy, impatience, anger, and want of charity; or, on the other hand, have I been too indulgent?

19. Am I in general *just* with regard to my pupils?

20. Have I not an ill-judged aversion to some, and predilection for others?

21. On what is this partially founded?

22. And if I can not in my heart excuse myself for these *sentiments*, ought I to allow them to have any influence on my *conduct?*

23. Have I not thus given to the children themselves reason to accuse me of partiality?

24. Do I not yield in general to the influence and disposition of the moment, and

thereby unequal, and capricious; sometimes very kind, and sometimes
in a bad humor, or even passionate and violent?
ien it is necessary to reprove or punish, do I seek always to bear in mind
ular character of the pupil with whom I have to do, in order to guide
cordingly in my reproof or punishment?
I always distinguish offenses which proceed from levity, indolence, or
its, from those which are the result of evil dispositions?
ve I not sometimes unconsciously excited the desire of praise, and pro-
ity or selfishness?
ve I not been to-day an occasion of stumbling and scandal to my pupils?
s there not been in my conduct, thoughtlessness, levity, harshness, and
ve, or even pleasure in inflicting pain?
ve I not given proofs of egotism, vanity, attachment to my own interests,
sufficiency?
ve I sought to obtain over the parents of my pupils, the influence which
endeavor to acquire if I am faithful in my vocation?
ve I not allowed myself to be led astray in the fulfillment of this duty,
self love, or a misplaced sensitiveness?
ve I sufficient confidence in Him, without whose will not a hair of my
h, and who knoweth what I have need of?
I, in the difficult position and sphere of action in which God has placed
for more ease, simply for the pleasure of enjoying it?
I not in my heart feel mortified at the directions of my employers; and,
ccasions, do I manifest ill humor?
I ready to remain inflexible in the confession of truth; and, if it be
God, to suffer for this confession, without turning from the right path,
ne side or the other?
ve I been faithful to the resolutions renewed this morning?
ve I not fallen into old faults and habits, which, even to-day, I had
d to renounce?
d if I have sinned anew, ought I not to implore a double measure of
o surmount happily at last those obstacles which have opposed my pro-
o long a time?
ine, have I made to day any progress in knowledge and virtue?
ve I labored to improve myself in my vocation, even out of the hours in
presented to me positive and regular occupation?
e I read any portion of Holy Scripture, or other useful books?
ve I there learned *something* which I can consider as the *profit* of the
y spiritual advancement?
re a few questions which a conscientious tutor may address to himself,
em every day, others at longer intervals; and those who would give
the trouble to examine their own hearts, would be able to add to them
e.

tended to have added a few additional remarks respecting the
school inspection as administered in Prussia. We will sim-
rk, that religious ministers are, *ex-officio*, inspectors of the
their respective religious sects, and obliged to visit the same,
t on their condition to the Kreishul or union inspector, of which
two in each union—both of whom are ecclesiastical digni-
e in the Protestant and the other in the Catholic Church. To
e requisite qualification for the duties of school inspection, the
government has, within a few years, made a law that every
ident for holy orders shall in future produce, at his examination
before his admission to the same, a certificate of his having
examination in pedagogy, conducted by the principal of the
nd his professors. This is an important step in the right direc

tion. To be able to conduct the examination, whether of teachers or schools, in a satisfactory and profitable manner, requires a familiar and practical acquaintance not only with the studies, but with the best methods of classification, discipline, and instruction. To this end, inspectors should be selected from the best educated, and most efficient and successful school teachers. An additional grade will thus be added to the scale of promotion open to teachers, and the stimulus will be felt through the entire profession, and at the same time the work of school inspection will be more thoroughly attended to.

SAXONY.

titution of Saxony, although monarchical, is based upon repre-
stitutions. The members of the lower chamber are elected
ers, and almost every head of a family is a freeholder.
vas one of the earliest of the German states to convert the
chools of the old ecclesiastical organization into public schools,
ide for the special training of teachers to the duties of their
In the cession of a large portion of her territory to Prussia in
l of her best teachers' seminaries, and higher literary institu-
transferred to that power, and with them went several of her
d and distinguished educators, and among them the celebrated
ncilor Dinter.
ent school law was given in 1836, and since that time more
ne in Saxony for the improvement of common schools than
r German state. Particular attention has been paid to the
ndance of children at school; to the supervision of both public
schools, and to the qualification and compensation of teachers.
r of common schools, corresponding to the wants of the people,
y a division of the kingdom into school circuits (schul-bezirke,)
children residing in each circuit must attend the school there
No boy can be apprenticed until after the age at which he
ly leave school. Congregations of different religious persua-
lowed to establish schools in their circuit, and if no other school
one so established, all the children of the circuit are bound to
hey are not, however, required to take part in the religious

hool circuit must furnish a school-house, and a dwelling for the
The schools are supported from funds of the church, from the
donations to the school fund, from fines levied on parents who
send their children to school, from a payment made to the
in purchases of property, from collections, from the fees paid
ls, and from direct taxation. These funds are chargeable with
's salary, with the furniture of the school, books and slates for
en, prizes, insurance, and incidental expenses.
schools in Saxony, as in Prussia, are of two grades. In the

lower, or elementary school, pupils must receive instruction, by law, in : 1. Religion. 2. Exercises of speech and reading. 3. Caligraphy a orthography, with written exercises on subjects relating to the affairs common life. 4. Mental and written arithmetic. 5. Singing. 6. T most important portions of natural history, geography, and history, esp cially those of the country. The details of the school plan are left to t teacher and local school inspector.

In the higher grade, or lower burgher school, the amount taught these branches is increased, and exercises of style, geometry, and dra ing, are added.

The books used in the Protestant schools are, the Bible, Luther's Ca echism, the hymn book, and three reading books, the selection of whi is made by the local school inspector. In the Roman Catholic schoo the selection of books is left to the ecclesiastical authorities.

The regular time for attendance is six hours on three days in the wee and four on two other days, making twenty-six hours per week. T vacations are regulated by the church festivals, and last about a week a time. Children above ten years of age, in the country, are exempte during harvest time, from attendance at school.

The punishments are chiefly addressed to the moral sentiments, b corporeal chastisement, in extreme cases, is allowed. The code of d cipline is required to be placed in a conspicuous situation in the scho room.

Every child must attend school for eight years, (from the age of six fourteen,) and there is attached to each school a person whose duty it to ascertain the causes of the absences of pupils, and who is entitled to small fee from the parents for each call he makes upon them. Accordi to statistics in the "German School Gazette," every child of a suit ble age and of sound capacity was in some school, public or private, fo portion of the year 1846.

The kingdom is divided into four circles, in each of which there is school board, which has charge of all primary schools, and teachers' se inaries, and regulates all appointments of teachers, and all pecuniary lowances—subordinate only to the Minister of Public Instruction.

Next in authority is a district board of inspectors, having charge of certain number of schools—subordinate to the school board of the circ The district board consists of a superintendent, the highest ecclesiasti and civil authority in the district, and a representative of the patrons each school. The superintendent is the district inspector; who mu counsel with the board, visit all schools, and report on the fidelity and c pacity of each teacher.

The lowest authority is a committee for each school circuit, compos of four persons, one of whom must be a clergyman, who must assemb on fixed days to consult together for the interests of the schools, mu hold semi-annual examinations in the presence of the district inspector, a report annually on the condition of the classes.

No person can be licensed who has not attained twenty-one years d one examination as a candidate, served two years as an as- d passed a second examination of a higher grade; as, by the 5, he must have graduated at a teachers' seminary. There ne of these institutions, besides a seminary for classical teachers, established in Leipsic in 1784, by Beck, and in which Her- Klotz subsequently gave instruction, for twelve students in meeting twice a week. The annual graduates of these Normal e now sufficient to supply all vacancies which occur in the The state appropriates 14,050 thalers, (about $12,000,) annually ort of these seminaries.

scribed course of instruction occupies four years, and no one ceive a certificate of qualification as a teacher without having gh this course, or showing an amount of attainment and prac- which shall be deemed its equivalent.

inaries were located as follows in 1848:

t Dresden,	The Royal,	with	7	teachers	and	71	pupils.
	The Fletcher,	"	6	"	"	21	"
Freiberg,		"	4	"	"	73	"
Zitlau,		"	2	"	"	13	"
Bredissin,		"	6	"	"	42	"
Plauen,		"	5	"	"	45	"
Grimma,		"	6	"	"	70	"
Annaberg,		"	3	"	"	12	"
Waldenberg,		"	2	"	"	15	"

yal Seminary at Dresden was founded in 1785, by Elector IV., and formerly possessed the celebrated Dinter as one of its It was intended for fifty pupils, with a staff of four officers, in- e directors. All the pupils, except those whose parents live in oard and lodge in the institution with the officers. Calinisch, highest educational authorities in Germany, is vice-director. with the seminary are six common schools, of the city, in pupils of the seminary acquire practice.

etcher Seminary was founded by Baron Fletcher in 1825, and n administration, although it is aided by the government. Pro- made in the institution for twenty pupils, who, for the annual about $30, receive board, lodging and instruction, and in the d third year of their course, a still larger allowance is made, to the poor and deserving. There is an institution for deaf he same building.

vernment makes its appropriation in aid of local effort, and funds ates its payments according to the character and standing of l teachers—providing that no teacher shall receive less than in the country, and 140 in the towns, besides a residence. In of 2,142 teachers, only 315 received less than 130 thalers, t here to $130,) and all but 687 were engaged not only through out permanently, and had a residence.

vernment has also established, on a foundation of 30,000 thalers, on, commenced in 1840, by Dohner, for superannuated teachers, and the widows and orphans of teachers. To secure the benefits of th fund, teachers of the first class, (teachers in gymnasia, real schools an seminaries,) pay at their admission 4 thalers, and annually from 4 to thalers, according to their salary. Teachers of the second class, (o common schools,) pay 2 thalers, and yearly from 1 to 4 thalers, accord ing to their salary. The state takes care of the funds, and makes u any deficiency of the revenue of the fund to meet the demand upon i besides a contribution of 2,000 thalers toward the capital. The fun yields:—1. To the widows of teachers of the first class, yearly, 60 thaler 2. To orphans of teachers of the same class, 12 thalers until they reac their eighteenth year. 3. To widows of teachers of the second class, 3 thalers, and to their children 8 thalers. Teachers are thus not onl provided against want while living, but from anxiety for their familie when dead, or incapacitated for active exertion. The result of these wi provisions on the part of the government, is seen in the improved an improving condition of the schools, and the higher attainments, profe sional skill, and social standing and influence of the teachers.

With a population of 1,809,023 in 1846, there was one university wi 85 professors and 835 students; six academies of the Arts and Mining, wi 43 professors and teachers, and 1,400 pupils; eleven gymnasia, with 1 teachers, and 1,590 pupils; six higher burgher and real schools, with 1 teachers, and 270 pupils; three special institutions for commerce an military affairs, with 43 teachers and 240 pupils; nine teachers' seminarie with 41 teachers, and 362 pupils; seventeen higher schools of industr or technical schools, with 72 teachers and 779 pupils; sixty-nine low technical schools, with — teachers, and 6,966 pupils; twenty-four schoo for lace-making, with 37 teachers and 1,928 pupils; and 2,155 comm schools, with 2,175 teachers and 278,022 pupils; besides one institution f the blind; one for deaf mutes; three orphan asylums; and a number infant schools and private seminaries.

The following account of the Royal Seminary, or College for Teach ers, in Dresden, is taken with some alterations from Kay's "*Social Co dition and Education of the People in England and Europe*," 2 vol published by Longman, Brown, Green, and Longmans, 1850. W have appended to this account remarks by the same author, on th practical working of the system of public instruction in Saxony, esp cially in its relations to the teacher.

ROYAL SEMINARY

FOR

TEACHERS AT DRESDEN.

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oyal Seminary, or College for Teachers, at Dresden, was
1785 and celebrated its 50th commemoration day on the 31st
835. and at the end of 1842, it had educated and sent out
teachers, who had pursued a four years course of study and
course which Mr. Kay, a graduate of Oxford, pronounces
e liberal than nine-tenths of the undergraduates of either
Cambridge, receive. In 1843, there was one thoroughly ed-
d trained teacher for every 588 inhabitants. In consequence
orough, liberal, and practical education, the common school
f Saxony, occupy a social position, which is not accorded to
ion in any other country.

ber of students who attend the lectures and classes of the college, is
venty; of these, sixty are lodged gratuitously in the institution; the
en dwell with their parents or relations in the town. Twenty of the
college have been endowed by the government, and are therefore in
e ablest of the candidates for admission are elected to them.

ination of candidates for admission to the college is held every Easter.
n the normal college costs little or nothing, the lodging and education,
hole expenses, being given gratuitously; and, as a young man, who
himself in the college is certain to be chosen by some school commit-
d as teacher, there are always plenty of candidates for admission from
nd lower classes of society. All these are subjected to a rigorous ex-
their acquirements, their character, and their past life, are most care-
ized; and, from among them all the most promising are chosen for
for the teacher's profession. No candidate can be elected who is not
strong, who has not a powerful and clear voice, or who is lame, short-
leaf. Every one must be at least sixteen years old, and must present
iners a certificate of a medical man of freedom from all organic com-
of sound health.

se of education in this college, as in all the other colleges in Saxony, is
ar's duration: no student can leave before the end of this time, and
he can not obtain admission into the ranks of the teachers, unless he
prescribed examination for diplomas.

nts are divided into three classes; each young man remains, during
years of his residence, in the third and second classes; but, during
d fourth years' residence, he pursues his studies in the first class. The
fessors and teachers in the college consist of,—

Director, (Dr. Otto, in 1845.)
Vice-Principal.
rofessor of Mathematics.
rofessor of Music.
y Teachers for Writing, Drawing, and Violin playing.

tor gives, every week, fourteen, the vice-principal sixteen, the third
venteen, and the fourth professor twenty-three hours' instruction to
.

The following table will show what the subjects of instruction are in the colleg and how the time of residence is divided between them.

TIME TABLE IN TEACHERS' COLLEGE IN DRESDEN.

Summer Half Year.			Winter Half Year.			Classes.
Number of Hours each Week in Class.			Number of Hours each Week in Class.			
I.	II.	III.	I.	II.	III.	
2	2	2	2	2	2	1. Religion.
0	1	1	2	1	1	2. Explanation of the Scriptures.
0	1	1	0	1	1	3. Scripture history.
3	1	1	3	0	0	4. Catechism.
1	0	0	1	0	0	5. Religious exhortation.
2	0	0	2	0	0	6. Pedagogy.
0	3	3	0	3	3	7. Special methods of teaching.
2	1	1	2	0	0	8. I. Rhetoric and reading exercises; I and III. Mental calculations.
1	1	1	1	1	1	9. Recitation.
2	0	0	2	0	0	10. Natural philosophy.
0	2	2	0	2	2	11. Natural history.
0	1	1	0	1	1	12. Geography.
1	0	0	0	0	0	13. Mathematical geography.
1	1	1	1	1	1	14. History.
1	2	2	1	2	2	15. German language.
2	0	0	2	0	0	16. Latin language.
2	2	2	2	2	2	17. Writing.
2	2	1	2	2	2	18. Arithmetic.
0	1	2	0	0	0	19. Geometrical drawing.
1	0	0	1	1	1	20. Geometry.
2	2	2	2	2	2	21. Drawing.
0	0	1	1	1	2	22. Singing.
1	1	1	1	1	1	23. Choral singing.
1	1	0	0	0	0	24. Quartet singing.
2	2	2	2	2	2	25. Concert singing.
6	3	2	3	1	6	26. Organ playing; II. and III. Violi playing.
13	19	19	7	12	6	27. Preparation and exercise hours.
2	2	2	2	2	2	28. Gymnastic exercises.
52	51	50	42	40	40	Total number of hours per week.

The students rise in summer at 5 o'clock, and in winter at 6 o'clock, in t morning: as soon as they are dressed, they meet in one of the class-rooms, whe the director reads the morning prayers; their hours of study are from 7 to A. M., and from 2 to 5 P. M.

Connected with the college is a primary school for children of that district the city, in which the college is situated: this school is under the direction of regularly appointed and experienced teacher, and is attended by 105 children, wh are divided into three classes, to each of which is assigned a separate class-roo in one part of the college buildings. In these classes, a certain number of studen from the college first practice teaching under the eye, and aided by the advice the teacher.

At the end of this long and careful preparation, they are called before the boa of examiners. If the young man is a Protestant, his religious examination is co ducted by the board of examiners themselves; but if he is a Romanist, a priest joined to the board, and conducts the religious part of the examination.

nination last *three* days.
rst day the subjects are—

to 10 o'clock, A. M.	Scripture history.
to 12 " "	Pedagogy.
to 4 " P. M.	Mathematics and the theory of music.

vers to the questions of the first day's examination are given in writing.
econd day the subjects are—

to 11 o'clock, A. M.	Catechising a class of village school children on some subject of elementary instruction.
to 12 " "	Reading; Arithmetic; and An object lesson given to school children.
to 2 " P. M.	A *vivâ voce* examination— In religion; The Scriptures; Luther's catechism; and Pedagogy.
to 5 " "	German language; Logic; and Psychology.
to 6 " "	History; Geography; Natural philosophy; and Natural history.

ird day the subjects of examination are—
Organ playing;
Singing;
Piano-forte; and
Violin.

ng candidate, who had been educated for FOUR years in a teachers'
not pass this examination so as to satisfy the examiners, he is obliged
is studies until he can do so. But if he passes the examination in a
nanner, the examiners grant him a diploma, which is marked "ex-
ood," or "passable," according to the manner in which he acquitted
s examination.

ng candidate does not obtain a certificate marked "excellent," but
rked "good," or "passable," he can not officiate as teacher, until he
o years in some school as assistant to an experienced teacher.

d of this time, he is obliged again to present himself to the board of
vho examine him again in the most careful and searching manner. If
is examination, he receives another diploma marked "excellent,"
"passable," according to his merit, and if he obtains a diploma
xcellent" he is enrolled among the members of the teachers' profes-
allowed to officiate either as a private tutor or as a village teacher.
n not obtain this diploma, he is obliged to continue to act as an assist-
until he can do so. Seminar Director Dr. Otto, the principal of the
ge, and a member of the board of examiners, assured me, that it was
ing for candidates to be examined four or five times, before they suc-
taining a teachers' diploma. When they have at last succeeded, they,
ose, who obtained the diploma marked "excellent" in the first examin-
gible as teachers.

l committee of the different parishes elect their own teachers. The
n, to which this right is subjected, is, that they may not elect any
has not obtained a diploma of competence from the board of ex-

eacher dies or vacates his situation, the school committee is required
ct another within two months to fill his place. All candidates for the
are examined in the presence of the school committee and of those

inhabitants of the parish or town who desire to be present; and after the examination, the school committee proceed to elect the candidates whom they consider the best qualified to fill the vacant situation. But even after this examination before the parochial or municipal school authorities, the successful candidate is generally obliged to present himself to another committee in Dresden, called the Landconsistorium, for examination, before he can finally be inducted into his hard-won office. Such is the great the seemingly exaggerated precautions, which are taken by the Saxon people to secure good and efficient teachers for the schools. If, at any of these different examinations, any thing is discovered against the moral or religious character of the candidate, he is immediately rejected. His moral as well as his religious character is carefully scrutinized before his reception into the Training College, and by each of the different bodies of examiners, before whom he is obliged afterward to appear. If his previous life can not bear this scrutiny, or if the principal or professors of his college can not bear testimony to his morality and to his religious demeanor during his residence, he is rejected, and is not permitted to enter the profession.

It is easy to perceive how high a teacher, who has passed all these examinations and scrutinies, must stand in the estimation of his country and of those who surround him more immediately. As Dr. Otto said to me, "The great number of examinations, that a young man must pass through, before he can become a teacher, is important, not only in preventing any unworthy person ever being admitted into the teachers' profession, but also, and more especially, in raising the profession in the estimation of the public. The people have a great respect for men, who have, as they know, passed so many and such severe examinations. They attend with more attention and respect to their counsels and instruction." And certainly, until the teacher is respected by the people, his teaching will be productive of but little profit. To be a teacher in Germany is necessarily to be a man of learning and probity. None but such a person can be a teacher. Can we say the same in England? How many of our teachers are only uninstructed women, or poor uneducated artizans; or rude and unlettered pedagogues; or even immoral and low-minded men? How many have never been educated in any thing more than reading, writing, and a little ciphering? How many have never been into a teacher's college? How many have only been instructed in such a college for the ridiculously short period of six months? How many have never been educated at all? And yet over Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Denmark, Holland, and France, every teacher has been carefully trained for some twelve or fourteen years, in preparation for his duties; has passed at least two, generally three, and often four years, in a teachers' college, under the instruction of learned and high-minded men, conscious of the importance of their work; has passed with credit several severe examinations, and has only finally been received into the teachers' profession, after a most careful scrutiny into his character and accomplishments has given an assurance to his country of his fitness for the important duties of his profession.

But strange and humiliating as is the contrast between the care, that is taken in Saxony and in England to prepare and elect efficient teachers for the village schools, the contrast between the situations of the teachers in the two countries, after election, is no less sad. In Saxony, as indeed throughout Germany, Switzerland, Holland, Denmark, and France, great pains are taken to make the teacher's rank in society, and his situation, worthy the acceptance of an educated man. The teacher is never left dependent upon uncertain charity. If his salary is sometimes small, it is at least fixed and certain. The minimum is fixed by goverment, and no parish or town-committee may offer less than this salary to its teacher. Moreover, the teacher is never degraded into being his own tax-gatherer. The parish or town is obliged to arrange with the teacher, before his appointment, how much he shall receive, when he shall receive it, and how he shall receive it. The committee is obliged to collect the funds necessary for cleansing, warming, repairing, and furnishing the school-buildings, *and for paying the teachers.* If they neglect to pay the teacher regularly, he can always appeal to the county magistrates who oblige the parochial or town-committee to perform its duty.

When a teacher has become too old, or too weak to perform all his accustomed duties in the school-room, the inspector of the district decides, whether he shall

sed with a pension; or, whether the committee shall engage an assistant
o aid him in the school-room. The widows and children of deceased
are pensioned off in Saxony, in the same manner as in Prussia, and the
this purpose are raised by the same means.

er most important regulation is, that no person or persons in immediate
connection with a teacher, shall have the power of dismissing him, after
elected. It must be evident to all, how much this is tending to lower
endence and respectability of the teachers of England. A private pat-
rgyman, or a committee of parishioners has the power in almost every
ur country, of dismissing a teacher. How often this has been done
account of some personal pique, or because the teacher would not sub-
ir crude notions of how a school ought to be managed; or from misrep-
n; or from mere village squabbles, I have no need to remind any of my
That such a dismissal is possible, every one will admit. How such a
must often damp a good and earnest teacher's energy, or undermine
y and destroy his usefulness, or at least lower his profession in the eyes
ple around him, is but too evident. But in Germany, no person in im-
connection with the teacher can dismiss him on any pretext whatsoever.
s are distant, unprejudiced, and impartial persons. In Saxony, after the
elected its teacher, it loses all direct power over him. The parochial
committee can inspect the school, when he or they please. Indeed, it is
to do so at stated times. They can advise the teacher and counsel him,
an not directly interfere with him. He is supposed to understand, how
his school, better than any other person in his parish. If he did not,
reparatory training would have been of little avail.

ergyman, or any of the parishioners, have any cause of complaint to find
eacher, and desire to have either dismissed or reprimanded, and obliged
his plans of proceeding, a complaint must be made to the county edu-
agistrate, and by him, to the minister of education in Dresden, who, in
the only person, who can dismiss a teacher. The county magistrate,
ng the complaint, immediately sends an inspector to the spot, to inquire
round of complaint or dispute; and after having received his report, the
of the parish, and the defense of the teacher, sends them to the minis-
cation in Dresden. It remains with the minister alone to pronounce the
nent. This impartial mode of proceeding tends to raise the teachers'
in the eyes of the people. They see that the teachers are men, who
ered worthy of the protection and support of the government. But
it enables the teachers to act honestly and fearlessly, to follow out the
know to be the best, and to devote their whole energies and minds to
s, without any embarrassing fears of offending employers or patrons, or
gering their continuance in office.

re 2,925 teachers in Saxony, or one teacher to every 588 inhabitants;
ot large enough for the wants of the country. In Saxony, as through-
any, they will not make any use of monitors. As they will not avail
s of the assistance of educated monitors in the more mechanical parts of
ching, they have therefore been obliged to adopt the following expedient.
ordains, that when there are more than sixty children in any parochial
d the parish can not afford to support more than one teacher, the chil-
be divided into two classes, when there are not more than 100, and
classes, when not more than 150 in number; that when there are two
e teacher shall instruct one in the morning, and the other in the after-
at when there are three classes, he shall instruct each class for three
y at separate times; and that all the children not under instruction shall
the school, while either of the other classes is there.

inquiries made by Dr. Otto, of Dresden, it appears that 2,119
rimary schools of Saxony receive the following salaries, inde-
y of the lodgings, fuel, and garden, &c.: 607 receive not more
); 531 not more than £50; 543 not more than £71; 206 not
an £90; 78 not more than £95; 25 not more than £105; 12
e than £120; 9 not more than £130; 7 not more than £138; 1
e than £150.

Mr. Kay makes the following observation on the public schools of Saxony:

Each parent is obliged to begin to educate his children at home or to send them to some school at the commencement of their sixth year, unless the child is sickly and unfit to bear any mental exertion. After a child has once commenced attending a school, it must continue such attendance regularly, summer and winter, for eight years; and, even on the attainment of its fourteenth year, it may not discontinue such attendance, unless it has obtained a certificate, stating that it can read, write, and cipher, and that it is well acquainted with the doctrines of its religion and with the truths of the Scripture history. The examinations for these certificates are conducted by the religious ministers, in conjunction with the teachers. In some few cases, however, where the parents are very poor, the school committees are empowered to permit the parents to remove their children from school at the end of their tenth year, if they can read, write, and cipher, and know the leading facts and doctrines of the Scriptures. But before they have attained this age, they can not be taken from school, except when they are too sickly or too weak to attend the classes.

No child may be employed in any manufactory, or in any manual labor, before it has attained the age of TEN years. The Saxons consider the education of young children as a matter of primary importance, to which all else must be made to give way. The morality and the liberty, as well as the social and physical condition, of the people are all considered to be dependent on the early and full development of their moral and intellectual faculties. To the attainment of this end, therefore, every other consideration is made to yield. The Saxons are, as is well known, a commercial people. But still commercial requirements have not outweighed moral considerations. From the age of six to the age of fourteen, every child must receive a sound, efficient, and religious education. Those children, however, who are wanted to work in the manufactories, and who have attained a tolerable proficiency in Scripture history, reading, writing, and arithmetic, are permitted to discontinue their attendance on the *daily* classes, at the age of ten; but are required to attend afternoon classes, two or three times a week, during the next four years. Thus, even the factory children receive regular periodical instruction from highly educated teachers, until they attain the age of fourteen.*

The most minute and particular regulations are in force in Saxony respecting the school buildings. The law prescribes that they shall be situated as nearly as in the center of the parish, and that a quiet and perfectly healthy site shall ted. To use the words of one of the regulations of the Saxon Chambers subject: "If there is any building which deserves the careful considera- the architect, it is that which is intended for the village school." The ient has prepared several plans, with specifications of the cost, &c., for ance of the county authorities and village committees.

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* The following section, (143) of the School Law, relates to the neglect of school attendance.

1. In every parish where there is a school union, there shall be a school messenger. In large parishes which are divided into many school districts, every school shall have a particular messenger, besides one for every school district.

2. Excepting on the common vacations, and on those weeks and days when there is no school, the school messenger must ask the teacher, on every school day, after the school hours, what children have been absent without an adequate excuse.

3. In places where there is but one school, the school messenger must ask this question at least twice a week, on Wednesdays and Saturdays, and require an account of the last three days.

4. The next morning, not later than an hour before the beginning of the morning school, the school messenger of every place must go to the parents of the absent and unexcused child, and demand him for the school, or else the reason for his absence. For every such visit the parent must give the messenger six pfennings.

5. If a child does not come after this demand, but remains away unexcused for two days, the school messenger must take him on the third day and conduct him to the school. The fee from the parents shall be one groschen.

6. A child of a place where there is but one school, who does not come on the Monday or Thursday after the visit of the school messenger, and remains unexcused; also if he stays away six days without adequate excuse, must be taken by the messenger and carried to the school, and the fee from the parents shall be two groschen.

7. If the child stays from the school with the knowledge of its parents after being thus carried to it by the messenger, measures for punishment must be taken.

8. If the messenger can not collect his fees, he must apply to the magistrates, whose duty it is to coerce the payment.

9. If the parents are actually too poor to pay the same, the magistrates must demand payment quarterly from the school chest.

10. The magistracy must lend their assistance to the messenger if, without good reason, he is prevented from taking the child to school; or, if he is improperly treated while executing the duties of his office.

llow the words of the regulations themselves: "Every school-room must iently roomy, lofty, well lighted, perfectly dry, and free from damp, of a nt and suitable form for the management of the school-classes, and in a open, and quiet situation."

ch of these several heads, a great number of minute and most carefully regulations have been made, for the purpose of insuring the attainment ends. The *minimum* of the size and of the height of the school-room laid down, and very particular regulations have been made relative to the , cleansing, and ventilating of the school-rooms; to the proper draining nd upon which the school is to be built and upon which the play-grounds aid out; to the lighting of the class-rooms; to the disposition of the nd even to the position and construction of the doors. Nothing which the school-rooms or school apparatus has been deemed too unimportant, to the most careful consideration, or too insignificant to require the most nd scientific regulations. The school-rooms in Saxony, as indeed through- many, are well supplied with parallel desks, forms, maps, illustration nd all the apparatus necessary to enable the teacher to instruct his chil- n effective manner. In the towns the schools generally contain eight or ses. A separate room is provided for each class. A learned teacher, received *fourteen* years' preparatory education, presides over each sepa- . One of these teachers is the general director and superintendent of e school.

of the class-rooms contains about sixty children. The law forbids any o allow more than sixty to be instructed in the same class-room. Each rooms is fitted up along its length with parallel desks and forms, facing ier's desk, which is raised on a platform about a foot high at one end of n. They are continually whitewashed and scoured, and are well venti- hey are lofty, and always well lighted. The children are never kept in s more than about two hours at one time. They are all taken down into -grounds at the end of every hour and a half, for ten minutes' exercise, ng this time the windows of the class-rooms are all opened and the air

aw requires every school committee in Saxony to furnish their school ith at least the following apparatus:

supply of school-books, slates, slate-pencils, lead-pencils, pens, paper, &c. use of those scholars, whose parents are too poor to buy these things for ldren.

me black painted, smooth, wooden boards, on which the teacher may class-lessons by delineations or writing.

moveable easel on which to raise the blackboards.

me maps, and among these one of the Holy Land; also some large copies ing and writing.

reading machine, like those now used in some of the best of our infant and

e school committees are advised to furnish, whenever they can afford to collection of objects for the illustration of the lessons in natural history and geography.

es this apparatus, many village schools are supplied with a library of books, from which any villager can take books home, on payment of about nny a week.

ve a general idea of the subjects of instruction in the schools, where the of the people are brought up, I subjoin a table, which will show what is n the primary schools of the city of Dresden, and how the hours of the apportioned to the various subjects of instruction.

The following Time Table in the Dresden Primary Schools, shows the number of hours devoted each week to the different branches of instruction.

Class I.		Class II.		Class III.		Class IV.		SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.
Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	
6	6	6	6	6	6	5	5	Religious instruction.
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	Recitation.
3	3	4	4	6	6	8	8	Reading.
3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	Writing.
3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	German language. IV. Mental and *vivâ voce* exercises.
4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	Arithmetic.
3	3	3	3	2	2	0	0	Geography, history, and natural history.
2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	Drawing.
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	Singing.
0	10	0	6	0	4	0	0	Instruction in feminine duties, such as sewing, knitting, &c.
2	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	Preparation for the classes under the superintendance of one of the teachers.
28	37	29	33	25	29	22	22	Total number of hours in each week devoted to instruction.

To explain this table it is necessary to remark, that in the town schools, there are generally eight classes instructed in eight separate class-rooms, four for boys and four for girls; that the fourth class contains the least and the first class the most advanced of the children; that each class is under the charge of a separate teacher; and that the girls generally remain in the afternoons for an hour and a half after the boys have left, in order to be instructed in sewing, knitting, &c., by a woman who is paid to conduct this necessary branch of feminine instruction.

Since the revolution of 1848, the education in all the primary schools has been made perfectly gratuitous, so that *every* parent can send his children to any school free of all expense; except that, which is incurred by providing them with respectable clothing.

Besides the day schools, there is still another class of schools, which merits our attention. These are the Saxon Sunday schools. They are to be found in all the towns, in the great parishes, and in the manufacturing districts. They are opened on the Sunday mornings or Sunday evenings, and are intended for the instruction of all persons of whatever age they may be, who desire to continue their education, and who are prevented, by their week-day duties, from attending any of the primary or superior schools. They are frequented principally by adults, or by young people above the age of fifteen, who have left the primary schools. These classes are opened every Sunday for about three or four hours, and are conducted by some of the district teachers, who are paid for this extra labor by the county authorities. The education given in them is not confined to religious teaching. It comprehends besides this, instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, the physical sciences, drawing, and the new inventions of the age. These classes generally assemble on the Sunday evenings, in one of the day-schools of the town or district. The incidental expenses necessary for warming and lighting the room, and for the purchase of the necessary books, &c., are generally defrayed by the voluntary contributions of the students, who attend the classes, and by the benevolence of rich people, who are interested in promoting these useful institutions. When the funds derived from these sources do not suffice, the minister of public instruction is empowered to assist the town or other locality, in perfecting and supporting these schools. In many towns and parishes, however, they are entirely maintained by public subscriptions, and in these cases the students do not pay any thing for their education.

ger are the Saxon people to gain knowledge, and so well do they under- value, that wherever any of these schools are opened on the Sundays or lidays, they are, as in France, immediately filled to overflowing, with peo- ll ages from eighteen up to fifty, who are desirous of increasing their stock mation, and of unfolding the powers of their minds. The importance of stitutions can not be over estimated. By their means, the people of Sax- always learning, that they have more to learn, and are always renewing ruction given in the primary schools. The lessons of the primary schools continually enforced; morality and prudence are inculcated; the union the teachers and the people is continually strengthened; the value of n and intelligence is each week shown in a still clearer light; the people inually brought into a closer connection with persons of a much higher intelligence; the tastes and habits of the people are raised; and by these heir independence of character, their prudence, their energies, and all itical as well as social virtues, are progressively developed. They do not to supply the place of day-schools. They contain scholars of all ages, nd old, and their teachers are persons, who have studied pedagogy as a and who are, in every sense of the word, qualified to teach.

example of what a Sunday school is in Saxony, I may mention one of those l at Dresden for adults. It is supported partly by charitable subscription ly by the municipal authorities of Dresden. Five paid teachers conduct uction given in it. It is open every Sunday morning from 8 o'clock until g which time the teachers attend and instruct the different classes. The n is perfectly gratuitous, and a great part of the necessary materials, such pens, ink, and drawing materials, are provided for the scholars free of The object of the institution is to awaken the religious feelings of the to strengthen their moral principles; and instruct them in reading, he German language, geography, history, arithmetic, and drawing. The hich the four hours of study are divided between these different studies, een from the following table:

LESSON PLAN OF A SUNDAY SCHOOL AT DRESDEN.

	1st Class.	2d Class.	3d Class.	4th Class.
	Prayers and Religious Instruction.			
0	Arithmetic and Elementary Geometry; Extraction of Square Root and the Rules of Proportion, and their application to mechanics.	Mental and Slate Arithmetic; fractions, both common and decimal.	Geography and History of Germany; Use of the Globes and Physical Geography, especially as regards Germany and Saxony	
1	Drawing; with constructive Geometry and Architectural Drawing.	Drawing; Light and Shadow Exercises in Lead, Chalk, Pen and Ink, and Colors.	German Language; Orthography, Etymology, and Dictation Exercises.	Arithmetic, both Mental and Slate Exercises.
2	German Language; various Exercises in Composition.	German Language; various Exercises in Composition.	Drawing principally from Models.	Writing and Elocution.

son may officiate as teacher in any school in Saxony, until he has ob om a committee of learned professors, expressly appointed for the pur pose of examining candidates, a diploma certifying in precise and definite terms his fitness for admission into the profession. And, even when a candidate has passed this examination, he can not be appointed head teacher of any school, until he has been tried, for two years, as assistant teacher in some elementary school, and until he has after this passed another severe examination.* The preparation for these examinations continues for many years. It begins at the elementary schools. If a boy wishes to enter the teacher's profession, he must gain a testimonial from his teacher, stating his diligence and his success in his studies. After leaving the village school, he still continues his studies, either in one of the higher burgher schools, or in one of the real schools or gymnasia, until he attains the age of fifteen. When he has attained this age, he lays testimonials of his character and his acquirements, signed by his teacher and his religious minister, before the magistrates of his county. He is then examined before these magistrates, together with all the other candidates, at the yearly entrance examinations of the normal colleges of his county, in all the subjects of instruction in the elementary schools The most promising are then chosen out, and are sent by the magistrates to fill up the vacancies in the normal colleges, of which there are always one or two in each county.

The young students remain FOUR years in these colleges, continually engaged in preparing for their entrance into the teachers' profession. The education given in these colleges is, however, perfectly gratuitous, or it is manifest no poor young men would be able to bear the expenses of such a training.

In a Saxon class-room one finds a learned professor, who has been educated for many years in preparation for his duties, standing before his class lecturing his children, as if they and he were rational beings. The aim of a German teacher is to awaken the minds of his scholars; to enable them to think, and t teach them to instruct themselves. He never tries to cram. The method which is pursued is the suggestive one. The teacher selects the subject of the lesson whether it be on history, natural history, geography, arithmetic, or grammar; and after the class has read some few pages together, the teacher commences his lesson by questions. When a question has been put by him to the class, all those children, who think they can answer, hold up their hands; the teacher calls upon them by turns to answer his question, or to correct the answers of their companions If the lesson is in history or geography, the teacher increases the interest of the children by anecdotes or descriptions, and enlists their sympathies on the side of virtue, heroism, and patriotism, by pointing out for notice the brilliant deeds of their country's heroes, and the exploits of their ancestors in resisting the foreign invader, or in conquering the national foes. The teacher addresses his children as thinking beings; as those, who will one day be men, and who will one day themselves influence the destinies of their nation. *The scholar will one day become a citizen;* that is the truth engraven on the German teachers' minds their duty and their aim is to awaken and to nurse into maturity the virtues of the people.

As soon as the teacher has been appointed, he and the local inspector are required to prepare a plan of daily instruction, to apportion the different school hours to the different studies, and to arrange the order and the time for holding the different classes. When this so-called lesson-plan has been once determined the teacher is bound by it, and can not vary the order of his class-instruction without again consulting with the inspector.

The school duties are commenced every morning, and closed every afternoon with prayer and singing.

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* In the literal words of the law—

"No one can be appointed teacher,

"1st. Who has not satisfied the examiners appointed by the minister of education, of h fitness to be admitted into the teachers' profession, by passing an examination conducted b them.

"2d. Who has not, after the above-mentioned examination, *practiced for two years a assistant teacher*, or, at least, as private tutor, under the direction, if possible, of an ab teacher; and who has not, during this time continued his education, and obtained the enti approbation of his superior teacher.

"3d. Who has not, after these two years, satisfactorily passed a *second* examination conducted by the above-mentioned body of examiners.

"4th. Who has not attained his twenty-first year."

lic examination of all the children is held once every half year in the
om, and under the direction of the local inspector. Notice of the ap-
sy is given by the religious ministers from their pulpits; and all the in-
of the parish are invited to attend. The school committee is required
be present at these public examinations. These examinations serve to
the efforts of both teachers and children, to interest the parents in the
nd to encourage a spirit of healthy emulation among the scholars. At
f the examination, the inspector pronounces his opinion on the progress
ldren in the presence of the assembled parish; but all remarks upon the
imself are given to him in private, so as not to diminish the respect of
en for him, by showing them that he does not fully understand how to
hem in the most effective manner.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED IN THE TWO CLASSES AT THE FLETCHER NORMAL SEMINARY IN DRESDEN.

The course is of four years' duration, fresh pupils being received and departing every two years. Those that come in the fifth half year would be placed in the second class of the following scheme, and at the end of the eighth half year in the first class. Those entering in the first half year would be in the second class till the fifth half year.

Subjects of Instruction.	1st Half year.		2d Half year.		3d Half year.		4th Half year.		5th Half year.		6th Half year.		7th Half year.		8th Half year.	
	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.
1. Biblical Knowledge		4 h.	.	.	.	.	.	.		4 h.	.	.	.	.	.	.
2. Biblical History		4 h.		4 h.	.	.	.	.		4 h.		4 h.	.	.	.	.
3. Bible Explanation	2 h.		2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h. common to both.		2 h.		2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h. common to both.	
4. Catechism	.	.	.	.	4 h. common to both.		4 h. common to both.		.	.	.	.	4 h. common to both.		4 h. common to both.	
5. Art of Questioning	.	.	.	.	.	.		2 h.	.	.	.	.	.	.		2 h.
6. Catechetical Exercises	2 n.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.	
7. Exercises in Thinking		2 h.	.	.	.	.	.	.		2 h.	.	.	.	.		.
8. Psychology and Art of Teaching.	.	.	.	.	2 h. common to both.		2 h. common to both.		.	.	.	.	2 h. common to both.		2 h. common to both.	
9. School Discipline	.	.	.	.	.	.	2 h.		.	.	.	.	.	.	2 h.	
10. General History	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	4 h. common to both.		.	.	.	.
11. German and Saxon History.	.	.	4 h. common to both.		.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
12. Latin	.	.	.	.		3 h.	.	.	.	.	.	.		3 h.	.	.
13. Composition	2 h. common to both.		2 h. common to both.		1 h. common to both.		1 h. common to both.		2 h. common to both.		2 h. common to both.		1 h. common to both.		1 h. common to both.	
14. Arithmetic		4 h.		4 h.		4 h.		3 h.		4 h.		4 h.		4 h.		3 h.
15. Geography		3 h.		3 h.	.	.	.	.		3 h.		3 h.	.	.	.	.
16. Natural Philosophy	.	.	.	.	2 h. common to both.		1 h. common to both.		.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
17. Writing		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.
18. Violin	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	2 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	2 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.
19. Singing	2 h.	2 h.	2 h. common to both.		2 h. common to both.		2 h. common to both.		2 h.	2 h.	2 h. common to both.		2 h. common to both.		2 h. common to both.	
20. History of the Church	.	.	2 h.	.	2 h.		.	.	.	.	2 h.		2 h.		.	
21. Geometry	.	.	.	.		3 h.		3 h.	.	.	.	.		3 h.		3 h.
22. Grammar	1 h.	2 h.	1 h.	2 h.		2 h.		2 h.	1 h.	2 h.	1 h.	2 h.		2 h.		2 h.
23. Reading		2 h.		1 h.	.	.	.	.		2 h.		1 h.	.	.	.	.
24. Natural History	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	2 h. common to both.		1 h. common to both.	
25. Drawing		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.		2 h.
26. Thorough Bass	2 h.	1 h.	2 h.	2 h.	1 h.	2 h.	1 h.	2 h.	2 h.	1 h.	2 h.	2 h.	1 h.	2 h.	1 h.	2 h.
27. Organ	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	1 h.	2 h.	1 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	1 h.	2 h.	1 h.	2 h.
28. Piano	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.

NOTE.—h. stands for the hours devoted to each subject of instruction during the week.

ORGANIZATION AND INSTRUCTION

OF

BURGHER SCHOOL IN LEIPSIC, SAXONY.

sic the public primary schools are of three sorts, the first for
the children of the poor who receive supplies from the public;
d for those who, not belonging to this class, would still be
by the payment of a school fee; the third, the burgher class.
the schools are endowed. The Burgher school is considered
che one of the most complete in its plan of organization in
. He thus describes it:

ool is designed to educate children of the middle ranks of society, and
upper ranks whose parents wish them to receive a public education.
nposed, 1st. Of an *elementary school* for both boys and girls, which
d enter at six years of age. There are three classes, in the lowest of
two sexes are taught in the same room. The pupils are retained, in
ear and a half to two years, leaving this department at eight years of
ceeding to the next higher.

burgher school proper. Here the boys and girls receive instruction
There are six classes for boys, each of which occupies a year. After
ough the three lower classes, the sixth, fifth, and fourth, the pupils
rate courses, according to their inclination or supposed destination in
is at about eleven years of age. Those who are intended for trades,
school education must finish at fourteen, to enable them to begin their
hip, pass through the remaining classes, the third, second, and first of
school.

ys who are intended to pursue higher departments of mechanical oc-
r for manufacturers, clerks, miners, foresters, stewards of estates, mer-
sts, civil officers, &c., pass into the department called the "*real*
rminating their course there at about sixteen years of age. Others
ended for the learned professions go at eleven to a gymnasium, pass
classes at eighteen, and enter the university, being prepared for a pro-
venty-one.

"*real school*" or higher burgher school. In this there are four
nded to occupy together about five years, and to prepare the pupils to
nmercial, polytechnic, architectural, or mining academy, according to
.

the girls' school, the scheme thus marked out will appear better by the
keleton:

TARY SCHOOL.—Three classes. Pupils 6 to 8 years of age.
SCHOOL.—Three classes. Pupils 8 to 11 years of age.
BURGHER SCHOOL.—Three classes. Pupils 11 to 14 years of age.
are apprenticed on leaving the school. Or,
CHOOLS of four classes. Pupils 11 to 16 years of age, and pass to a
, *commercial*, *mining*, *architectural*, *&c.*, *academy*. Or,
UM (grammar school) of six classes. Pupils 11 to 18 years of age.
to the *university*, where, after a course of three years, they may be
one of the learned professions.

t once convenient and rational is thus marked out for a youth's educa-
ding upon the views of his parents, their circumstances, and his own
dispositions. The first four named schools are united in one building,
the liberality of the town of Leipsic, and have the same director.
jects and the order of succession of the different courses are good;

there is a constant reference to the ultimate object of the instruction, and branches are inserted in the programme merely for the purpose of prepar pupils for the higher classes of other schools. It is, on the contrary, conside better that pupils should obtain access to them through the lower classes of same school. By detaining them here, injury would be done to both scho The primary instruction which is common to all the pupils, embraces a moder number of branches, and terminates at an age when experience has shown t the culture by the ancient languages should be no longer postponed, in the c of those who are intended for the learned professions, and when the studies others destined for the arts should take a different direction. The questi whether the proper age has been adopted for this separation is wholly one of expe ence, and the facts in reference to it will be submitted in speaking of second instruction.

The subjects taught and the time they occupy in the *elementary school* ag very closely with those of the first two classes* in the seminary school of Ber Drawing on slates and singing are both introduced here, constituting an adv tage over the other; they are brought in as a relief from intellectual exerci and as objects of direct attainment. The number of hours of duty is but four four days of the week, and two on each of the others. These might, I think, increased to the standard of the primary schools, twenty-four hours per we without fear of over-tasking the pupils; and if a portion of the time were stowed on judiciously arranged exercises, the physical as well as moral educat would be improved. The moral training of the play-ground is not as yet an ment in any of the German systems. The same master teaches in succession the studies of his class.

The pupils pass from the third to the second class at the end of six month change which is favorable to their progress, since at this early age strongly mar differences appear soon after entering the school. With a similar view of fit in regard to their age, the plan of daily exercises is not rigorously prescribed, is merely indicated to serve as a general guide in relation to the time to be devo to the different subjects.

I found occasion in this school to remark the danger of defeating the exerc of induction, by making them merely mechanical, by the reception of fi answers to invariable questions; and, also, the necessity of selecting very sim melodies for the early exercises in singing; beyond these, the exertion of voice of the child, so far from being a physical benefit, is a positive injury. preference for beginning arithmetic with a reference to sensible objects, that is, denominate numbers, was again strongly confirmed.

It might seem impossible to determine how many pupils of a definite age mig with advantage, be intrusted to the care of one teacher under a given method instruction. The average for branches of the same kind is not, however, so w from the extremes as might at first be supposed. In the simultaneous meth the skill of the teacher is the chief determining quality. The various subordin ones depending upon the pupil, the particular exercise, the arrangements in ref ence to ventilation, warmth, &c., will readily suggest themselves. In the mi of all these, the average shows itself to attentive observation. It is easy to how many pupils are attending to what is going on, and if the teacher be skil in his art, the number is thus obtained, which a class should not exceed. For intellectual exercises, I obtained in this way from thirty-five to forty in the G man schools as the maximum number of an elementary class; the observation reference to the classes of the best teachers here confirmed these numbers. the mechanical branches, the number of pupils may be very much increas without material injury to the instruction, and hence, the classification which su them is not adapted to the intellectual departments.

The principal subjects of instruction in the *burgher school*, including both t lower and higher departments, are religion and morals, German, French, arit metic, geometry, natural history, history, geography, calligraphy, drawing, a vocal music, and to these are added in the highest classes technology and physi The list differs from that of the Dorothean higher city school, and the semina school of Berlin, in the omission of Latin and the introduction of technology a oth which differences mark the proper character of the school. It is ded that the upper classes shall prepare pupils for the higher classes of the m, but that those who are to be trained in the classical studies shall have passed to the lower classes of the gymnasium, where they properly nd where they can obtain the instruction appropriate to their objects. ibution of time is shown in the annexed table, which is similar in its ent to those already given.

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* See page 133.

INSTRUCTION IN THE HIGHER AND LOWER BURGHER SCHOOLS OF LEIPSIC.

SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.	BURGHER SCHOOL FOR BOYS.						Total.
	HIGHER SCHOOL.			LOWER SCHOOL.			
	First Class. 13 and 14 years of age.	Second Class. 12 and 13 years of age.	Third Class. 11 and 12 years of age.	Fourth Class. 10 and 11 years of age.	Fifth Class. 9 and 10 years of age.	Sixth Class. 8 and 9 years of age.	
us Instruction,	4	4	4	4	4	4	24
n Language,*	5	6	8	6	8	6	39
,	2	2	2				6
netic,	4	4	4	4†	6	6	28
try,	2	2	2				6
l History,	1‡	3	2	2	2	2§	12
ology,	2						2
s,	2						2
phy,	2	2	2	2		2	10
y,	2	2	2	2	2		10
g,	1	2	2	3	3	4	15
ng,	4	4	3	3	2	1	17
g,	2	2	2	2	1	1	10
Total,	33	33	33	28	28	26	

rease in the number of branches as the pupils rise to the upper classes, me judiciously made in this plan. At the same time, the number of week is gradually increased, and perhaps beyond the due limit, though equire longer attention than I could give to this institution to affirm pos t this is the case. Comparing the programme with that of the classes onding age in the seminary school of Berlin, a general similarity appears t, although each has distinctive features. In the sixth class, of which are of the same age with those of the fourth in the seminary school, a s of natural history and geography ("knowledge of home") are given, advantage. The number of hours per week devoted to the different nearly the same in both schools.

fifth class, natural history and history are introduced in the burgher d in its corresponding classes in the seminary school, Latin, French, and The number of hours of arithmetical instruction is greater in this n in the other.

ar difference continues in the fourth class, as it is not the object to begin ntil after those who leave the school at fourteen have terminated their The elementary exercises of geometry are begun in this class of the chool.

rd class is the first or lowest of the *higher burgher school*, and the pro-

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cludes the exercises of reading.
is included an hour of preparatory exercises for geometry.
pology.
tary natural history and natural philosophy.

gramme of this and of the second agree in the main with those of the seminar school. Greater attention is devoted to religious instruction, to arithmetic, an drawing, and less to French, in the burgher than in the seminary school. Th number of hours given to the first named branch in the burgher school is doubl that in the other, and the number to the last only one-half, which is, probably, to small an allotment for the object. Technology and physics are taken up in th first class of the Leipsic school, and Latin is continued through all those of th Berlin institution.

In regard to the plan of treating the subjects of instruction, the following is comparison of the two schools:

1. In *religious instruction*, the general train is the same, being more detaile in the burgher school, and having a special course of morals in the higher classe In general, the German institutions are very free from an objection urged to course of religious instruction, in a former part of my report, namely, that it wa addressed rather to the understanding than to the heart. There is no expre instruction in morals, but it is because the morals of the Scriptures mingle wit their daily lessons, and no special course is needed, until a more advanced ag than that embraced by these schools in general.

2. The course of *German* language (including composition) and reading, parallel with that of the Berlin seminary school, except in the two higher classe In these a turn is given to the compositions to adapt them to the peculiar destina tion of the pupils, who are also exercised in speaking, by reading dialogues an brief dramatic pieces. In a country enjoying a constitutional government, the a of public speaking may not be neglected by its citizens.

3. The course of *French*, in the burgher school, struck me as rather defectiv probably from the small amount of time which is devoted to it, as already stated.

4. *Mathematics.*—The courses of arithmetic and geometry are also parallel wit those in the seminary school. The mathematical studies here are extended furthe in Algebra, and include logarithms, mensuration, and surveying.

5. *Natural history, physics, and technology.*—The early beginnings of th course are exercises in induction, directed particularly to awaken habits of obse vation and reflection. Later, some of the more interesting parts of natural histor are taken up, and, finally, the subject is treated somewhat systematically, and technological direction given to it. The physics consists of such popular notio of natural phenomena as should be possessed by all. The technology explains th processes of some of the common arts and trades.

6. The course of *geography* begins like that already described at Halle, bu subsequently pursues the inverse order, giving an idea of the earth as a part o the world, its form, motions, &c. Director Vogel has conceived the plan of pr senting the parts of the earth always in their just proportions, as upon the spher and has contrived for this purpose a globe which may be divided through th equator or through a meridian. The hemisphere being suspended with its plai surface against the wall, presents the convex surface, with its delineations, in tru proportion. This idea he proposes to extend, by substituting for maps, in the earl recitations, portions of spherical surfaces, with the delineations of the countri upon them.

After taking a general survey of the different countries, especially those o Europe, the pupils pass to the geography of Germany. They then enter mo into the details of the countries of Europe, draw maps, and, finally, study mathe matical and physical geography in a scientific form. To carry out his views o the connection of history, natural history, and ethnography with geograph director Vogel has prepared a school atlas upon a new plan. The vignettes su rounding the maps contain illustrations of these different kindred branches, an address the eye of the learner, thus impressing the memory with their connectio with the countries delineated. For example, around the maps representing th different quarters of the globe are the characteristic plants, animals, and men o the different regions near to the portions of the country where they are foun The more detailed maps of the countries give a view of their natural production represent the more prominent or characteristic qualities of the nation, the arts whic flourish more particularly among them, and give medallions portraying their gre historical characters, or including the names of their distinguished men, or th dates of important historical events.

e *historical* course, as far as it is distinct from that last mentioned, agrees,
eneral features, with that of the Berlin seminary school, being, however,
nute.

riting and drawing.—In learning to write, the classes begin with small
d succeed better than is usual upon that plan, probably from the atten-
he same time, to drawing. The last named branch is taught by Schmidt's
The teacher has made an admirable collection of models in wood and
f geometrical solids, of machines, of buildings, bridges, and the like, of
ts, &c., and brings his class forward in this kind of drawing very rapidly.
more elementary parts of these collections, however, are used for the
f the burgher school.

cal music is taught as in the other schools

articular method which the teacher pursues in his instruction is left much
dividual, the director remarking, justly, that if he is competent to his
method must be good. He has for his guide, however, a programme
the degree of proficiency which his class must show at the end of the

lower classes of a school like this, if the pupils have been previously well
larger number can be instructed by the simultaneous method than in
entary classes, in a subject of the same kind. This advantage is lost as
e becomes higher, and the scale turns again in proportion as individual
becomes more desirable, with increased individual development and dif-
in mental quality. The simultaneous method requires watchfulness on
of the teacher, not to deceive himself as to the progress of his class. It
rse, rarely that a question can not be answered by some of them, while
may be entirely ignorant in relation to the subject. I have seen both
attention fall into the mistake to which I refer.

en each of the hours of recitation there are a few minutes of interval,
hich the classes leave the school-rooms. This is an arrangement favora-
lth, and worthy of imitation.

wer classes have each a teacher for all the subjects, a system which is
changed in the higher classes for that of a teacher for a single subject.
and singing are taught by special instructors in the higher classes.

asses for girls are similar to those described, the instruction being modi-
to render it more applicable to the sex.

lan of instruction in the "*Real School*," the highest of which this estab-
is composed, can hardly be said to have received, as yet, its ultimate
he school belongs to the class of secondary instruction, running parallel
gymnasium, and preparing for the university of the arts, or polytechnic
the other prepares for the university of the learned professions. The
taught, and which I may enumerate, to complete the description of the
n, are,

igious instruction. 2. German. 3. French. 4. English. 5. Mathe-
ncluding algebra; geometry, trigonometry, plane and spherical; practi-
ying; a review of arithmetic and technical arithmetic. 6. Physics and
y. 7. Natural history. 8. History. 9. Geography. 10. Calligraphy.
wing. 12. Vocal music.

parate branches in this school are in general taught by special instruc-
ie methods of Pestalozzi are considered by the director as less applicable
gher than to the lower courses. But I doubt this, for though much less
y applied, I have seen them used with good effect in advanced courses.
site method takes up less time if the object be to communicate positive
ge, and the importance of this object certainly increases, and even be-
aramount, in the later parts of the student's career. The objection
this plan does not apply in the case of those subjects which are contin-
ough a series of years, but to such as are broken up into a number of
branches, the elements of which are to be taught at different, and even
ced stages of the course.

lan of special study hours for those whose parents wish them to be pre-
their lessons under the direction of a teacher, has been adopted in this

Mr. Kay thus speaks of the public schools of Leipsic and Dresden.

It was delightful to enter one of these well classified German schools, in whic
all the children are divided according to their acquirements, into as many class
as the school contains rooms; one educated teacher is placed over each class, ar
by having only children of the same degree of knowledge under his care, he
able to give his class-lessons to all his children at one time, without being oblige
to divide them, and his thoughts and attention also. Every thing showed u
that all the details of instruction had been thoroughly and carefully considere
The size, careful ventilation, and cleanliness of the rooms; their arrangemen
and furniture, and the character of the apparatus, with which they were fille
all told us, that the Saxon people and the Saxon government understood the im
portance of the great work of the people's education, and knew that its perfectio
depended on a scientific regulation of all the details of school management.
visited, also, several of the primary schools in Dresden, and found them equall
admirable for their classification, for the number, size, cleanliness, ventilation, an
good arrangement of their class-rooms; for the character and numbers of th
teachers connected with them; for the scientific character of the instruction give
in them; for the order, quiet, and excellent discipline of the class-rooms; for th
suggestive and awakening nature of the methods of instruction pursued in th
classes; for the gentlemanly and intelligent bearing of the teachers; for th
cleanly, healthy, and comfortable appearance of the children, and for the friendl
relations of scholars and teachers.

SECONDARY EDUCATION
IN
SAXONY.

ıre indebted for the following account of the gymnasium or
'or secondary instruction in Saxony, mainly, to Dr. Hermann
r, of Dresden. Dr. Wimmer* was educated in the common
ymnasium, and university of his native country; was trained for
al teacher in the philological seminary of Hermann and Klotz,
ic, and was for several years professor in the Fitzhum gymna-
Blochmann college at Dresden, one of the best classical schools
any.

ymnasia of Saxony are partly boarding and partly day schools.
t celebrated of the former at Meissen, Grimma, and Schulpforte,
ablished at the date of the Reformation by the electors of Sax-
he foundation of the old monasteries or cloisters, the buildings
s being thus diverted from ecclesiastical to educational purposes.
chools are known as *Fürstenschulen*, or Prince schools, or
chulen, or Cloister school, from the circumstances of their founda-
hese old boarding gymnasia are called, by Dr. Wimmer, the
of classical learning in Germany. The gymnasium of Pforta,
Portensis,) was opened for pupils in 1543, the funds of the old
y having been sequestered by the electoral Prince Maurice, on
e of Luther, for this purpose. In 1815, the school passed with
ince in which it is located into the dominions of Prussia. The
n yielded, in 1838, a revenue of $30,000, on which one hundred
nty beneficiaries (*intraners*) were lodged, boarded, and in-
In most of the boarding gymnasia there are a class of pupils,
rs,) whose tuition is free, but who board, at their own expense,
professors. Besides the Fursten, or Prince schools, there were
large cities, a gymnasia supported by municipal taxation and
uition, and managed by the municipal authorities. But within
ew years most of the gymnasia have been merged in the bur-
igher elementary school, leaving eight or ten to be aided and
d by the government, and which are continued as classical
These are open day schools, and are situated in the larger
ere the parents of most of the pupils reside.

en the Fursten, or strictly boarding schools, and the open or day
a, there are two of a peculiar character—the Thomas school
ic, and the Blochmann-vizthum gymnasium at Dresden. The

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mmer is now (1862) engaged in preparing for the press in Dresden, his observa-
Education and Religion in the United States"—the results of his visit to this coun-
-61. The work will be sold by B. Westermann & Co., 290 Broadway, New York.

Thomas school is partly a classical and partly a musical institution; mo than half of its students form the great vocal choir of the Thom church, and is celebrated for its performances on Saturday's and Su day's. Those students called alumni, have their tuition and board fre and in the latter part of their college life earn some money by their o casional singing. A similar musical class exists in connection with oth city gymnasia, but the musical instruction is not carried so far. W give a more particular account of the Blochmann institution.

BLOCHMANN-VIZTHUM GYMNASIUM AT DRESDEN.

The Blochmann-vizthum gymnasium combines within itself a classical, and real or scientific school, and a preparatory school, or progymnasium. It is both boarding and day school, and partakes of a public and private characte being under the direction of the government authorities as a public school, a supported in part out of funds left by Count Vizthum at the beginning of the 17 century, for the education of children of the Vizthum and other noble famili and for a number of poor boys who are clothed, boarded, and educated as co panions of the young nobles to stimulate them by their zeal and diligence.

All the boarding students, about eighty, are distributed into nine rooms. T occupants of a room are under the special care of one of the teachers, who h generally an adjoining dwelling-room. He is interested in their moral and int lectual welfare, is applied to by the teachers who see any thing in their pupils commend or to blame, and by the parents who wish to hear something abo their physical or spiritual health; he gives the allowance of money for buyi books, clothes, or whatever they want; briefly, he is the representative of t absent parent, and enjoys usually the respect, confidence, and love of his pupi They come but occasionally and for a few moments to their room, to get books something else out of their secretaries, or in stormy days they are allowed to p a leisure hour there; but the neighboring teacher has no oversight of them, unle he is disturbed in his studies by their noise, and then he gives them to unde stand, by knocking at the door, that he is at home, which generally suffices prevent any further interference. The order of the day is exclusively committ to the Inspectors of the day. For every day two professors are intrusted wi this responsible office, so that every officer has the ambiguous honor and the ti some task of sharing with a colleague for one day of the week the command ov the whole. On that day he must see that the students rise (at 5 o'clock in t summer, at 6 in the winter,) must be present at the first breakfast, superinte the study hours from $5\frac{3}{4}$ A. M. to 8 P. M. (all study in four adjoining class-room lead singing and praying in the chapel, keep order before the lessons begin, asc tain whether all the teachers in the nine classes are present before he leaves his recitation or lodging-room, must be in the garden at the time of second brea fast from $9\frac{3}{4}$ to $10\frac{1}{4}$, in stormy days go over the classes and rooms, and so aga froom 11 or 12 till 3, when the lessons commence again and continue till $4\frac{3}{4}$; a again from $5\frac{1}{4}$ till 8 are study hours, in which he must be every where and nowhe and on Wednesdays and Saturdays he must be the walking or bathing-compa ion of half the section. At 8 is supper time; at 9, the great mass must go to be and only such students of the superior classes as are to be trusted, are permitt to study until 10, when the tired inspectors take their last round through t bedrooms, to ascertain whether all are asleep or are likely to be in good ord and then, unless something extraordinary has happened during the day, satisfi with themselves and their day's work, they retire to their rooms. Except t day scholars, no pupil is allowed to leave the house to make a social visit witho a ticket of permission from his special tutor, signed likewise by the director, whe the time of leaving is mentioned and the statement of the time of arriving a leaving again is expected from the hand of the visited person.

Besides the three or four study hours, under the superintendence of the t inspectors, which are considered sufficient for the necessary preparation and rep tition, the students are bound to be in the garden, walking, running, playing, exercising in some way. It is in this free time, also, that lessons on the piano,

gymnastics, fencing, dancing, and riding, are given. Only the last hour
ening is allowed to the older students for staying in their rooms. In this
he Vizthum gymnasium takes the extreme view, and, for aught we know,
ice of studying in the room, adopted by the other colleges, seems to be
preferable to that of studying in full classes. But it is the authority of
students, on which the practicability and the success of studying in
rooms, without the inspection of quite as many tutors, chiefly depends,
haracter of the institution as well as the demand of rational supervision,
have been the causes of an arrangement not sufficiently comfortable to
dying the great pleasure of life, as one might experience in the common
the Fürstenschool, or in the private chambers of students in city gymna-
re is a conference of the twelve chief teachers on Saturdays, the Direc-
Chairman and the youngest professor secretary, in which the events of
are spoken of and disciplinary measures taken. The private teachers
ccess but in cases where they are particularly concerned. Every pro-
the right of punishing, and the private teachers may apply for it to the
To make use of that painful right, the teacher as such is but rarely
tener in the quality of inspector, and it will be understood, almost never
tutor. Corporeal punishment is forbidden. The common penalty is de-
of one of the meals; the highest is imprisonment. It happens in the
n institution, that to malefactors of inveterate habits flogging is applied,
o those of the two preparatory classes, and by decree of the conference,
resence of the directors. In the common gymnasia, where professors
ents meet with each other only in the recitation rooms, there is less
f transgressing laws, the law of the class-room being but one, and that
ment impressed upon the mind of the would-be-transgressor by the pres-
e law-giver and judge, but habitual indolence and laziness will meet
ething more than a sermon on diligence, which would be like casting a
earl before a swine; a few involuntary study-hours for making a Latin
ls better and more successfully to the stubborn heart. It is never too
nd; hence expulsion from the college is and ought to be a rare case, and
tim has usually gone, before, through the dark hole called *carcer*, which
to ninety-nine per cent. of the gymnasiasts more by name than by sight.
generally speaking, in the German gymnasia, a strict discipline, without
tan severity and without Basedow's philanthropical sweetness. Of
ere have been a great many students who never, in their college life,
arsh word nor saw a stern look; but others, who are not well prepared,
ttentive, or noisy, or have written their compositions carelessly, or com-
nisdemeanor that comes to the ears of professors, are generally dealt with
plain German, and "without gloves," and a repetition may lead, by a
ustion, or rather degradation, to the hole. In the common gymnasia,
sors do not interfere with the private life of the students, unless some
brought against them by a citizen.

nasium ordinarily consists of four classes, called Prima, (the highest, or
Secunda, Tartia, and Quarta, (lowest, or freshman,) and each of these
e usually divided into two parts, upper and lower. In this institution
six classes, including the progymnasium.

are received into the progymnasium at nine or ten years of age, and
attainments of the elementary period. In this school, which has two
ey remain until from thirteen to fourteen. Its courses are the following:
ory, and religion, the German language, the Latin, French, history, arith-
owledge of forms, geography, natural history, drawing, and writing.
upper class of the progymnasium, the pupils pass to the gymnasium, in
ere are four classes. The courses are of religion, Latin, Greek, German
and literature, French, mathematics, history, geography, natural phi-
atural history, music, and drawing. From the fourth or lowest class of
asium, the pupil who is not intended to go to the university enters the
mnasium," or scientific school, in which there are two classes, and the
of the studies of which is one year less than that of the classical gymna-
this the French and English, and the scientific studies, replace the
xcept a portion of Latin, which is still kept up. The courses consist of
German language and literature, Latin, French, English, mathematics,

physics, chemistry, natural history, mechanics, history, geography, drawing, and music. The distribution of the time of study in the principal branches agrees entirely with that of the two upper classes of the Royal Real School at Berlin, already described.

The arrangements for the superintendence of the pupils in this institution are, in the main, like those of Pforta. Pupils called inspectors are selected, and superintend their fellows when in the play-ground and at study, and there are two masters always on duty as superintendents. The physical education of the pupils is very well attended to, and the alterations of exercise and study have a very good effect. These alterations will appear by the following order of the day:

The boarders rise at six o'clock, and breakfast at a quarter to seven. From a quarter to seven to a quarter to eight, study under the superintendence of the two teachers on duty. Pupils living out of the house join in this study hour. Prayers. From eight to a quarter to ten, instruction. Quarter to ten to quarter after ten, play in the garden, and a light second breakfast. Quarter after ten to twelve, instruction. Twelve to one, instruction in instrumental and vocal music, gymnastic exercises, dancing, or free to play in the grounds under the charge of the two superintendents. At one, the day scholars leave the institution. Quarter after one to two, dinner. Two to three, play under charge of the inspectors. Three to quarter of five, instruction. On Wednesday and Saturday, walks. Quarter to five to quarter after five, lunch and recreation. Quarter after five to eight, study under charge and aided by the inspectors. Eight, supper. At nine the younger pupils retire, the older ones study until ten.

The mathematical instruction in this school is continued, even in the higher branches, upon the inductive plan, and is the most effective which I have ever seen. It consists of a mixture of explanation and question, and of oral and written exercises in the class-room. The recitations are upon the previous lessons, and upon questions given to be solved out of the class-room, and the written exercises are solutions of questions and notes of the explanation of the previous lesson. The collections in natural history are superior to those possessed by any other gymnasium which I visited. Both this and the physical apparatus afford very considerable means of illustration in these departments. The chemical laboratory, in a building apart from the house, is very conveniently arranged, both for instruction and experiments by the pupils.

The time of a gymnasium life varies with the progress of the student in literary acquirements. There are generally semi-annual transfers from one division to the other, and in very rare cases it might happen that an excellent student would finish his course in four years, remaining in each division but half a year, and on the other hand, a first-rate idler might stay as long as eight years. Hence, the average number of college years is six. The student, advancing from one class to another, finds there a remaining stock of students superior to himself, if not in talents, at least in acquaintance with the studies and with the professor of the class. After a three months' study and experience, the able student may leap over that boundary and put himself on a level with his older companions; and then he will be transferred with them to the next class. It is easier to do so in the inferior classes (lower gymnasium, IV. and III.,) where the order of the students is arranged according to their studies in the class, but in the upper gymnasium more respect is paid to the time and common order, though some capital scholar will break through, while some sluggard will be left behind. There is, also, a good deal of difference in this respect between the different schools, some having only annual translations, while only a part of the classes are divided; however, the way of advancement is in all the same, except only in the Blochmann gymnasium, where four regular courses of one year and a half each, carry the student in six years through the four undivided classes.

History flourishes in the German colleges to a high degree, not only the history of ancient Greece and Rome learned by reading the various authors, but also the universal history of the civilized world. The professor of history may be sure to have an attentive class, eager to hear of old German liberty beside the Roman despotism, of the Teutonic race conquering the Roman Europe, first running wild in their bravery, then grafting Christian civilization on the healthy stems of the great empire under Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, and under the Hohenstaufen, of the Franks and Normanns in Gallia, of the Saxons and Angles in

of the Longobards in Italy, of the sea-power of the Northmen, of the
s of the Middle Ages, of the Reformation, and of the American Revolu-
history and mathematics generally, the divisions of a class are united.
, in those gymnasia where semi-annual transfers are in use, the teacher
matics may have a good deal of trouble, whereas history may be taught
periods, and easily made intelligible to any one by brief introductions or
vate study. We pass by geography, natural history, and philosophy,
ve only a short life in the lowest or highest classes.

rcumstances, that mathematics and history are usually taught by one pro-
h, facilitates somewhat the teaching, as it at least gives free scope to the
to make his arrangements as he pleases, while the Greek and Latin are
ught by class-teachers. The average number of teachers is eight, five
them called professors in some gymnasia, upper-teachers in others; or
to their rank Rector or Director, Prorector or Rector, Collega III. (Ter-
lega IV. (Quartus,) etc., and two or three Adjuncti or Collaboratores.
of them has his respective class, with several lessons in the adjoining
It will be understood that this matter depends on the agreement of the
e, and that the colleges, therefore, differ from each other in this respect,
considerably. But to a certain degree it exists even in the Blochmann
where there is no difference of rank among the professors, and the
are appointed not for classes but their respective branches. However,
g four teachers of ancient languages, they have each, besides teaching
class in which they have their chief work. What! four and more
only to instruct in the ancient languages? Yes, and all these have their
k's work. And the ancient languages are not only equally taught
t the whole college, but even to a greater extent in the highest classes.
n American student has only three recitations a day, a German at least
s; hence it is obvious that a greater number of teachers is wanted in
han in American schools.

ve arrived now at an important point of difference. It lies in the char-
ecitations and lessons. In Germany the student prepares for the les-
the student prepares by learning the lesson. In Germany he receives
lesson from the teacher; here he recites his lesson to the teacher.
repeats his lesson at home; here he repeats it before the teacher.
here he learns almost every thing from the teachers; here he learns the
rt from his books. We hope not to be misunderstood; it is the con-
of the machine, not the managing of it, which we have drawn here in
s; too sharp, indeed, to be entirely correct, as it is the case with all dis-
f that kind, and yet evidently characteristic. Generally speaking, an
student has for preparing his lesson double the time of the recitation hour;
but half the time; besides that, private study being supposed and required
ere as here. Here the class or lesson-book is the fireman who makes
power, and the teacher the engineer who makes it run. There the
both fireman and engineer, and the student need to do no more than re-
is last trip, and bring a supply of fuel for his further progress. Hence
r number of lessons and teachers. It follows, likewise, that a German
ually has his pen in hand to make notes for recording and repeating,
other hand that the professor has the most unlimited liberty in teach-
and how he pleases. There is naturally a great deal of danger in that,
hod prescribed to the teacher in spite of his will, disposition or capacity,
r even more bitter fruits than a method of his own choice, though it
he best. Yet he is not free in choosing the author, at least so far as he
rfere with other classes, or transgress the established rule of the college
t of the successive order to be observed. That order, adopted by most
ccording to the agreement of the most competent judges, is generally
ing:

ius Nepos, (Phaedrus.)	IV. Jacob's Reader.
. Ovid's Metamorphoses, (Tristia.)	III. Xenophon. Lucian. Odyssey.
's Orations, or Cato and Laelius. st or Livy. Virgil.	II. Herodotus. Plutarch. Plato's Crito or Io. Iliad.
's Rhetoric or Philos. Tacitus. ca.	I. Thucydides. Demosthenes. Plato. (Euripides.) Sophocles.

The two different methods of reading the classics, the thorough and the cursory, and the third running between them, are promiscuously used. Let us compare the first with the artillery, the second with the cavalry, and the third wit the infantry, as the head, the feet, and the large body of the army. The first is heavy, cumbersome mass, moving slowly yet reaching far, and the only means t make a fortress surrender. It requires both learning and skill, and, if well d rected, it breaks the battle-array of the enemies. So the first method is the chi instrument for making the pupil master of the classical field. It may appear ted ous to stay long on the same spot, where the prospect invites to proceed, but th present place must be wholly conquered with all its environs, while the charms the view around, the safety from an attack of enemies in the rear, and the consciousness of a sure and safe progress, will conquer the worst enemy, the vagran laziness of mind. No grammatical point, which is not entirely subdued, is to b passed by, no beauty of style to be overlooked, no nicety of thought to be slighte It is true, not a little learning and taste is required from the officer, to make it interesting and useful; for how can he make others at home where he himself is stranger? Or how may he avoid the danger of dwelling long on those poin with which he has been made acquainted just before, and of caring little abo those which did not attract his special attention, as already known to him supe ficially? Instances of abuse have not been rare in Germay. Some dictated a the later notes of the best commentators; perhaps one whole page to explain single verse, and added at last their own judgment; others made the foreign wi dom their own, indeed, but it was not well digested, it could not inspire muc interest in classical learning. Still, notwithstanding all this, the danger was n so great as one might imagine, there being a variety of classical teachers in eve gymnasium, who hold one another in check, or rather who supply the deficienci of each other. Thus it happens even, that their foibles turn out as so many a vantages for the student.

The cursory method we have compared with the cavalry. It is good to reconnoitre the battle-field, to take possession of open places, and to destroy the enem when he is put to flight. No one should expect more from cursory reading. O the whole, it is not often used in the German colleges, because it contains n much of educational element, either for character or for learning. However, v think it the best way to let it precede, and follow the first method. It acquain the pupil somewhat with the language and tone of the writer, and thereby mak the following more thorough reading easier and more interesting. Here the pr fessor must carry the student over the fences and ditches. It should follow n only that the pupil may enjoy the reading of a larger piece of poetry or pro and excite lasting attachment to the author, but that it may throw light upon t past subjects, make suggestions better understood and confirm the knowledge language and style by silent repetition. Here the student must carry the profe sor, who, however, will make a wise use of bridle and spur. Rapidity of mi and elegance of taste are the chief requisites for giving to the third method reading the right turn and the best success. Every thing good lies between e tremes. Most teachers are common foot soldiers, neither laden with learning n rapid in tasteful perception; neither fond of standing too long, nor of runni too quickly, but they go duly on, as they are commanded by learning or custo In modern times much has been done toward improving the method by uniti the obvious advantages of the thorough and cursory plan, in order to read mo of the author without losing the right understanding and the acquisition of t language.

For "author-lessons," a student is required to know all the necessary wo and be able in some degree to translate the following chapter. Four or five p haps get parts of it for translating. This being done, the teacher commences e plaining by asking whatever the character of the passage and the standing of t students allow. In the lower gymnasium the Latin prose is used for repeati and applying the rules spoken of in the Syntax lessons; in the upper gymnasiu grammatical remarks occur seldom, more frequently rhetorical, æsthetical and h torical ones. Etymology is never lost sight of, but it is confined to Latin a Greek stems. The students are expected to make notes, to read them over home, and are sometimes directed to learn the passages that have been read heart.

litions of the classics used in the lessons are commonly without notes, and
f such, as have all somewhat difficult passages explained is forbidden dur-
sson-time. A good teacher keeps the whole class alive chiefly by ques-
nd only when nobody has found the right or could find it, he formally
instruct. For although the professor is the only source of instruction,
cter of classical teaching is such, that it may be easily interwoven with
of examination, and few questions, proposed by an experienced and skill-
r, will be so difficult as not to find among the many youths of different
ents and abilities, at least one who could give a satisfactory answer. We
answer that gives a part of the point in question, and leads successively
explanation, which afterward the professor in a few words recapitulates.
ever correct the single remarks may be, that instruction only deserves to
skillful and elegant, where every following question seems to originate
preceding, and the whole series of remarks appears to be more or less
connected.

na, *criticism* is practiced to some extent, and, we believe, not unsuccess-
be sure to discern hair-breadth philological niceties, or to judge of the
ss of a passage or a single word, belongs to the sphere of the professional
philology; yet not only to give the result with some suggestions about
ing researches, but also to lay before the seniors such critical points to be
are not beyond the reach of their learning, will undoubtedly strengthen
and acuteness of judgment in an interesting and profitable manner.
judgment of the professor himself respecting the choice of the critical
iscussion, and the manner in which it is managed, are in the department
on, where method is every thing, the chief point to be inquired after.
ng men of about twenty years acquainted with language and literature,
ed to play sometimes the part of critics, is evident, and they ought to be
in it.

will be more doubt about the utility of *speaking Latin* in Prima and
Secunda. Of course, the authors are translated into German, but gen-
lained in Latin. Besides, there is one hour a week set apart in some
r Latin conversation. It is true that the students become more familiar
anguage in many respects, but the correctness of language and elegance
e not always much improved by it. Agreeable as that acquirement is,
necessary as yet for the students to understand the Latin lectures in the
, it is to be considered as subordinate to the achievement of a correct
only when the speaking is well balanced by continual exercises in writ-
t exert a great and wholsome influence, and become an essential part of
al discipline of mind.

rcises in *writing Latin* are duly appreciated in the German gymnasia. In
d Lower Tertia, where the syntax is accurately reviewed in three or four
eek, short exercises, suitable to fix the learned rules by application, are
ing and between the lessons. A translation-book, not unlike the English
ith rules, is often used besides Zumpt's grammar, but the right under-
and the best exercises come from the teacher. In Upper Tertia and
ecunda the German text for translation is prepared by the teachers, in
ne care is taken of the weekly reading and of the still fluctuating gram-
recepts. But in Upper Secunda and Prima, at least for two years, the
rcises are *free compositions* on a given theme. They are not always
ut half-monthly and monthly, in order to allow a longer time to larger
ons of six to ten pages, while the review of the same is going on usually
s a week. These free exercises are not only an important, but also a
ask to the advanced scholar, who is beyond the reach of a grammatical
in the possession of all the necessary words, and fond of moving freely in
what he has read and in expressing what he thinks best. And only to
are useful to whom they are easy. Another help for writing Latin are
temporalia," in which the students, as the name indicates, is obliged to
mediately down in Latin what they are told in German. This quiet com-
and exchange of the two languages promotes greatly the faculty of think-
tin, necessary to speaking and writing. In one gymnasium we noticed
e of spending in Prima one hour of the week in making a brief composi-

tion on a given subject, read in Cicero or spoken of during the week. The shor time does not allow deep reflection, still it is long enough to the eager student, t make a few periods chiefly with regard to the form, and to apply some eleganci of style remembered from the last Cicero-lesson. It is a matter of course, tha free compositions in the German are made besides, and that they rank quite a high.

The teaching of the *Greek* reveals naturally a somewhat different character, a no reproduction either for speaking or for writing is intended. There is som writing in and for the grammar-lessons throughout all classes, (*Rost* and *Wüstemann's* Exercises are much used,) but it is easily perceived that the writing is by-work, and tends only to make authors and language better understood. Thus i happens that a young man who reads Homer without wanting the aid of a lexicon, is sometimes in some perplexity to find a common Greek word, if asked i German. And the Greek is not the worse for it, provided that on the one han is gained, what on the other is lost. It may be supposed, however, that the philologist in the university is so well acquainted with the language by reading an explaining Greek writers, that he will be able to write and even to speak Gree tolerably, if compelled to do so.

In order to understand and enjoy poetry, one hour is appointed in every class fo prosody and metre. The student of Tertia who commences reading Ovid, is prepared for it by a long practice of the rules of prosody and of the laws of hexamete distichs. In Secunda it is required of the student to make free verses, hexameter or distichs. Having been introduced into the variegated world of lyrical form and enabled to read and appreciate the odes of Horace, the "Primaner" make little poems of whatever metre, heroic, lyric or dramatic. We hold these lesson and exercises to be very useful, not only to get a correct idea of the poetical bu also of the general rhythmical laws of the languages, without which a nice understanding of prose as well as of poetry is next to impossible.

Let us add a few words in regard to private studies. Our readers who hav rightly inferred from the large number of lessons, that a German gymnasiast ha plenty of work in order to do his public task conscientiously, and very little tim left for fancy-studying, provided that he takes a sufficient time for meals, rest, an exercise. On the other hand, it is obvious, that not all the authors mentione above can be read. Yet some acquaintance with all of them is required, and th view is generally taken by the professors, that the reading which can not be don in the lessons ought to be supplied at home. The student, therefore, must wor pretty hard to be well prepared for the lessons, to have his weekly exercises, a German and Latin compositions, Greek, metrical and mathematical lessons, exactly studied, and to give, as it is required in some colleges, every month a goo account of his private studies. There he presents extracts of an author with compositions of any kind he pleases, in prose or poetry; and where no such accoun is given publicly, private studies of the same sort are nevertheless expected Besides the morning and night hours, the free afternoons of Wednesday and Saturday afford a longer series of study-hours. There are in the whole about eigh weeks vacation. The results of the home-studies are, of course, soon perceived b teacher and pupil, and the loss of time is doubly compensated by the rapid progres and by the ability to make the best exercises in the shortest time. Still, we do no mean merely free and independent reading and working, but chiefly the free spiri of diligence used independently of the necessities of school, yet in doing th school-work.

The boy of fourteen is now a young gentleman of twenty years. Having mad his lawful run, and having the permission of the professors to graduate, he must bit a sour apple and get examined. This "examen maturitatis" is somewhat more difficult and more important than the usual semi-annual or annual examinations, for i will declare him prepared for independent and professional studies, and also decid on the degree of his maturity, ("imprimis," "omnis," "satis," dignus.) A however have laid a good foundation for any kind of scholarship, or likely to rea with ease the New Testament (such as are to be theologians are taught the Hebre in Prima,) the Corpus Juris and Celsus, can understand a Latin lecture or oratio and retain so much during their professional life in the university, as to be abl generally to speak Latin after three years, in the theological, juridical or medic examinations.

classical education, as common to all scholars, is here closed. But for those
end devoting their lives to classical learning and teaching, the philological
continues in the universities.

OF LESSONS IN THE BLOCHMANN-VIZTHUM COLLEGE, (1840,) AT DRESDEN.

IV.

	H.		H.		H.
ion	3	C. German	2	5. Natural Hist.	1
uages:		D. French	3	6. Geography	2
k	6	3. Mathematics:		7. Drawing	2
		(a) Algebra	1	8. Singing	2
elius Nep.	4	(b) Arithmetic	1	9. Gymnastics	2
mmar	3	(c) Geometry	2	10. Dancing	2
ody	1	4. History	3		—
					40

III.

ion	2	(c) Grammar	4	5. Natural Hist.	1
uages:		(d) Prosody	1	6. Geography	2
k,		C. German	2	7. Drawing	1
er	2	D. French	3	8. Singing	2
an	2	3. Mathematics:		9. Gymnastics	2
mmar	2	(a) Algebra	1	10. Dancing	1
,		(b) Arithmetic	1		—
ar	4	(c) Geometry	2		40
	2	4. History	3		

II.

ion	2	(b) Cicero	2	(a) Algebra	1
uages:		(c) Sallust	2	(b) Arithmetic	1
k,		(d) Grammar	3	(c) Trigonometry	2
	2	(e) Prosody	1	4. History	2
dotus	2	C. German	2	5. Natural Hist.	2
mmar	3	D. French	3	6. Gymnastics	2
,		E. English	2	7. Singing	2
l	2	3. Mathematics:		8. Dancing	2
					—
					40

I.

ion	2	B. Latin,		E. English	2
uages:		(a) Tacitus	2	3. Mathematics:	
k,		(b) Cicero, phil. cursor.	1	(a) Stereometry	2
ophocles }	2	A) Cic. philos. }	2	(b) Higher proport.	2
uripides }		B) Cic. epis. }		4. History	2
hucydides }	2	(c) Horace	2	5. Natural phil.	2
emosthen. }		(d) Exercises	2	6. Gymnastics	2
er cursor.	1	(e) Latin speak.	1	7. Singing	2
cises	1	C. German lit.	3	8. Dancing	2
x Antiquit.	1	D. French	2		—
					40

PROGYMNASIUM.

	II.	I.		II.		I.
	4	"	Bot., Zool., Min.,	2		"
	6	9	Drawing	2		"
	3	"	Calligraphy	2		"
	4	"	Gymnastics	3		2
ic	3	"		—	Singing	2
y	2	"		34		—
						38

SCHOOL OF MINES

AT

FREYBERG, SAXONY.

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celebrated school is one of the richest mining districts of Saxony, and the
ty of the mines permits an easy combination of practice with theory. Its
ect is to furnish educated young men for the corps of mines of the king-
ut it also admits strangers to its courses at a trifling expense for their in-
n, the pupils boarding in the town.

ral government. The school of mines is under the immediate govern-
the directory of mines (oberbergamt,) and is thus a branch of the minis-
inance. The professors form a board for the execution of the general reg-
, and one of them is specially charged by the directory with the superin-
e of the instruction of discipline.

ission. Applications for free admission to the institution are made to the
y of mines, and must be accompanied by certificates that the applicant is
sixteen and twenty-three years of age, is of good moral character, in
health, writes German correctly, and understands the grammar of the
e; has made some proficiency in geography and history, can read easy
uthors, is acquainted with arithmetic, the elements of geometry, and has
beginning in drawing. If he understands the French or English language,
ecommendation. The testimonials must be handed between the months of
and June, and the directory decide which of the applicants may present
ves for examination before the professors of the school. Those found
in all the courses enter, and others may, in particular cases, be allowed to
classes, undergoing subsequently an examination in the studies in which
re defective. According to an edict of the German diet, in regard to the
ce of foreigners upon the scholastic institutions of any of the German
trangers must apply to the minister of finance for permission to attend the
nd present a testimonial of character and proficiency, and the written ex-
of their parents' wish that they should attend the school. Admission is,
, freely granted. Those pupils who are in part, or entirely, supported by
rment, are divided into two classes. The first division includes the regu-
nts, called beneficiaries (beneficianteu,) who pass through a course of four
the school, and become candidates for the corps of mines; the other is
d of those who enter for places not requiring more than one or two years
, or who have passed a superior examination for admission, but can not
regular students, in consequence of the want of a vacancy in the corps.
these there are two other divisions, namely, Saxons, who pay their own
at the school, and foreigners. These different divisions are distinguished
cteristic differences in the uniform which they wear. The gratuitously
students come under an obligation at entering, in event of leaving the
f the government, to refund the pay which they may have received, and
e cost of their tuition. The regular pupils receive a pay proportioned in
to the length of time which they have been in the school. The first class
from twenty-two to thirty dollars per annum; the second, from fifteen to
wo; the third, from seven to fifteen. The fourth class receive only the
ation to which they may be entitled for their work in the mines.

uction. The courses of instruction are divided into those which are to be
by all the pupils, or general, and those which depend upon the branch to
ey intend devoting themselves, or special. The first consist of elementary,
nd applied or mixed mathematics, mechanics and the machinery of mines,
analytical, and special or technical chemistry, physics, drawing, general
graphical, of shades, shadows, and perspective, and of mining implements,
g and metallurgic machines and constructions, oryctognosy (mineralogy,)

geognosy (geology,) crystallography the art of mining, metallurgy, civil engineering mining jurisprudence and correspondence, the French language. The second o special courses consist of the surveying of mines and land surveying, the keeping of books, registers, &c., of fossil geology, for those who are intended as miners and of the examination of minerals, and analytical chemistry, with special reference to the ores of Saxony, for those who are to serve at the furnaces.

These courses are pursued by the regular students according to the following plan:—The first year is devoted to elementary mathematics, to physics, to geognosy, to general and topographical drawing, to French, and to general practica operations of mining and metallurgy. All these pupils are allowed at certain time to be present in the mines and at the furnaces, under the charge of miners an smeltors, who act as instructors, and who report at the end of the year upon th character of their pupils.

During the second year the courses pursued are—higher mathematics, genera chemistry, mineralogy, with practical exercises, crystallography, the art of mining civil engineering, drawing, French, practical mining, and geological exercises.

After this year the student determines whether he will devote himself to mining or metallurgy, and receives special instruction accordingly.

The general courses of the third year are—applied mathematics, the art of mining, analytical chemistry, metallurgy, technical chemistry, drawing, practical exercises in mining and metallurgy, geology, with practical exercises, and foss geology.

The courses of the fourth year are—machinery of mines, theory and practice mining jurisprudence, examination of minerals, analytical chemistry, and practical exercises of mining and metallurgy. During this year, the pupils who inten devoting themselves specially to mining attend solely to practice in that branch and thus also with the metallurgists. The particular operation in which they engage is regulated by the lectures, that the practice of each operation may be acquired at the same time with its theory.

In relation to the amount of study to be pursued, the government pupils ar divided into three classes, those who aim at entire qualification for the corps, an who, on graduating at the school, go to the university for one year, and those wh intend to connect themselves with the department of metallurgy.

Among the apparatus for carrying out these courses is an admirable collectio of models of machines and of mines. The collection of minerals and geologica specimens is large, and besides that of the school, the students have the use of th cabinet of the celebrated Werner, which is kept detached from the other as memorial of that great man. The library and reading-room, the collection o physical and chemical apparatus, and the arrangements for the study of analytica chemistry, and the assay of minerals and ores, are all suitable to their several object The course of assaying with the blow-pipe has become quite celebrated.

The lectures are continued from October to July, with holidays of from one t two weeks at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide. During the summer vacation the regular pupils make excursions into the other mining districts of Saxony, an even into foreign countries, for their improvement in mining, geology, &c., an are expected to keep a journal of their tours. The short vacations are employe at the school in practical exercises and in literary compositions, unless leave o absence is obtained. There is also one day of each week on which there are n lessons, (Monday,) to allow the pupils to take part both in the mining and smeltin operations of the district of Freyberg.

There are eight professors and five teachers attached to the school, amon whom the different departments are divided according to the following plan, i which the number of lectures per week is also noted:—One professor has charg of the three departments of general and technical chemistry and of metallurg lecturing on the first, five hours; on the second, three hours; and on the thir three hours. The professor of theoretical and practical mineralogy lectures on th theory for students of the first and second courses, each three times a week; give a repetition of one hour, and practical exercises two hours per week. The professor of geology and crystallography lectures on the first, five hours, and on th second, two hours per week. The professor of physics and fossil geology lecture on the first, four hours, and on the second, two hours per week. The professo

nentary and higher mathematics gives instruction in the first, four hours,
e second, two hours per week. The professor of mining jurisprudence
spondence gives two lessons per week to each of his two classes. Mixed
ics, mining machinery, and general surveying, are under one professor,
es the first and second, four hours, and the third two hours per week.
rveying is taught by a surveyor of the corps two hours per week.
and civil architecture by an instructor, the former, six hours, and the
e hours per week. Registry is taught by a superintendent of mines.
of minerals by an overviewer, five hours per week. The teacher of
ves four hours of instruction per week.

jects are in general taught by lectures, combined with interrogation after
re, and, when the courses admit, with practical exercises. The pupils
ed to write out a fair copy of their notes, and to keep a journal of their
xercises; these are from time to time, with the essays which they are
write, submitted to the professors, and are presented at the examina-
e subject of each recitation, the character of the pupils' answers, and of
ises, drawings, and journals, are reported to the directory of mines by
ors. At the close of each of the four years there is an examination of
ts in the several branches, and they are classified according to its results,
timate of their work during the year. Students who do not pass satis-
emain an additional year in the same class, after which, if they are not
icient, they are dismissed. These remarks apply of course only to the
dents. There are three prizes for proficiency in the upper classes, and
fourth, varying in amount from two up to twenty florins, (eighty cents
llars.)

tion. Graduates of the school are candidates for the corps of mines,
e the pay of this grade until appointed in the corps. Permission may
d to go to a university for one year, after graduating, in which case the
on his return to duty, must show satisfactory certificates of study and
This study of one year at a university is essential to certain situations in
and hence is expected from those who intend to have the whole career
e them.

ine. The discipline of the school is regulated by laws emanating from
ry of mines, and which are very minute. All the pupils without dis-
re subject to these regulations. The means of repressive discipline con-
onitions of various grades, report to the directory, mention in the report
g, obligatory work in the mines, deprivation of pay, and dismission.

ool, from the character of its officers, government, instruction, and loca-
great inducements to students who wish to become adepts in the prin-
mining and metallurgy, and the sciences introductory to them.

GRAND DUCHY OF BADEN.

are four Normal Schools, or seminaries for teachers, in the Grand
f Baden, viz.: at Carlsruhe, Ettingen, Meersburg, and Müllheim.
giving a brief outline of the course of instruction pursued in the
School at Carlsruhe, we will give a condensed analysis of the plan
ich the primary schools of Baden are organized—drawn from the
ordinances now in force. The Grand Duchy is one of the most
constitutional states of Germany, and one the best provided with
nal institutions.

a population in 1844 of 400,000, there were—
Universities—one at Heidelberg, with 710 students.
" at Freiburg, " 485 "
Lyceums, or High Schools—a grade below the University.
ymnasiums—devoted mainly to high classical instruction.
dagogiums, or Schools preparatory to the Lycea.
een Latin Schools—preparatory to the Gymnasium.
Seminaries for young ladies.
Normal Schools—one at Carlsruhe, for Protestant teachers.
Catholic "
nstitution for the deaf mutes.
eterinary School.
olytechnical School, with 200 pupils.
rade School.
ilitary Academy.
Common Schools, each with different grades or classes.

L AUTHORITIES AND INSPECTION.—These institutions are all under
ral supervision of the State, from which they receive in some form
ally. Their supervision is committed to the Department of the
subordinate to which there exists an Education Department or
consisting of one member for each of the four districts or circles,
ch the State is divided. In all regulations respecting religious in-
, the highest authorities of the Protestant and Catholic churches
ulted.

e primary schools, there is a School Board, or committee for each
ur districts, which must be consulted by the local school authorities
unding of a new school, or suppression of an old one, and respect-
hanges in the appointment of teachers. The board has the appoint-
a School Visitor for all the schools of the district, who holds his
years, and is paid out of the State appropriation for educational
, and a School Inspector for the school or schools in each town and
rish.

owest school authority consists of the Inspector as chairman, the

mayor, or highest civil officer of the locality, the vestry of the parish amo
Protestants, the trustees of all ecclesiastical foundations in Catholic ec
munities, and the directors of synagogues in Jewish communities. Th
constitute a local or parochial school committee. In large towns, on spec
application, the State Education Department can appoint a special board
take charge of all the schools, and of any separate school for a particu
religious denomination.

School Attendance.—Children whose sixth year terminates between
23d of April of one year and the 23d of April of the year following,
bound to commence their schooling with Easter of the second year. A y
is allowed where infirmity or similar disabling causes are proved to the s
isfaction of the school authorities.

The parish clergy, who keep the registers, have to furnish the school
thorities with a list of all children whose schooling begins at the next f
lowing Easter. To this a list is added of all children not born in the pla
and which has to be drawn up by the school authorities. These lists
to be handed to the schoolmasters; and one fortnight after the school
opened, the schoolmaster has to return to the authorities the names of s
children as attend the school, as well as those of the absent children. T
latter are to be forced through the police to attend school, except where th
absence is excused or explained for reasons hereafter to be stated.

Children leave schools also at Easter. Boys on having completed th
14th year, and girls their 13th year, or expecting to complete it before 2
April of that year. If by that period children who have attained these a
are not sufficiently advanced in the objects of instruction specified, th
may be kept one or two years longer. Every scholar obtains a certific
on his leaving school.

Children who have private instruction, or who attend higher institutio
for the purpose of obtaining better instruction, are free of the school,
require a certificate from the school inspectors. Private seminaries must
authorized by the upper school authorities. This authorization cannot
refused where the applicants are in every respect approved candidates
masters; but such establishments must make good the school money wh
they abstract from the regular schoolmaster.

Every week the schoolmaster is required to give to the school authori
a list of such children as have been absent without leave, or who, hav
absented themselves, did not satisfactorily account for their so doing,
gether with number of days' absence. This list is handed to the bur
master, who forwards it to the parents of the children, and imposes a f
varying from 2 kreutzers (⅔*d.*) to 12 kreutzers (8*d.*) for every day of n
attendance.

Studies in Primary Schools.—The studies in the elementary scho
are—1. Religion. 2. German language. 3. Writing. 4. Arithme
5. Singing. 6. General instruction on subjects of natural history, natu
philosophy, geography, and geometry; also on points appertaining to hea
and to farming. 7. Where there are sufficient means, drawing is to
taught. The last-named subjects are to be treated in such a manner t
the more essential first five points are not to suffer by the attention
stowed upon them.

Internal Organization of Primary Schools.—1. Schools that ha
but one teacher are to be divided into three classes, to be counted from
lowest as *first* upward.

In the summer half-year the third or highest class has two morning ho
of schooling daily; the second class has also two morning hours, and t
first or lowest class has two hours in the afternoon.

In the winter half-year the third or highest class has three morning ho
of instruction daily. The second class the first afternoon hour alone, a

ond in conjunction with the first class or beginners. One of these
is to be employed in writing, under the inspection of a proper mon-
lected from the scholars, while the other class is taught by the teacher.
f-holidays (Wednesday and Saturday) the morning hours, three in
r and four in winter, are to be proportionally divided among the three
.

Vhen there are two teachers, the elder scholars are to be placed under
acher and the younger half under the other. The school is then di-
nto four classes, each teacher taking two, and each class has instruc-
r three hours daily, both in summer and in winter, excepting on half-
s, when each class has but one hour and a half in the morning.
e number of pupils does not exceed 210, they may be divided into
lasses, with the consent of the school authorities. If boys and girls
tructed simultaneously, the division indicated above, into higher and
classes, each under a separate teacher.
re there are three teachers, one is to instruct the beginners in the
st classes. Where the upper classes are composed both of boys and
he elder pupils are under one teacher and the younger ones under the
or the sexes may be separated.
h four teachers, two distinct schools are formed, of four classes each,
angements being such as are already indicated.
se arrangements, being fixed by the Education Department, in confer-
ith the parochial school authorities and the Inspector, may be modified
the exigencies and the means of larger towns or villages, provided
thing be so arranged as to interfere with the rules that no class is to
70 in number; that each class is to have three hours' instruction
nd the upper boys' class to have four in winter, with the exception
-holidays, when the instruction is to be for them two hours, and for
ers half hours.
laces where industrial schools for girls are established, no change in
rrangements is to be made in consequence. Changes made, in con-
ce of the aid of an assistant being required from the ill health of the
, or an increase in the number of children, are to be reported to the
tor, who will report upon them when submitting the results of his in-
n to the Education Department.

he advance of children from one class to another takes place after the
ation, with the approval of the Inspector, and with due regard to the
d natural powers of the pupils. When the parents do not consent, a
an only be required to continue at school beyond the legal age on an
ization of the Education Department through the Inspector.

are is to be taken that the pupils assemble punctually at the fixed
and they are clean in person and attire. They must also behave with
ety both on their way to and from school and while at school. The
tions concerning their conduct are to be publicly read to the pupils at
ginning of every half-year, and are to be hung up in every school-room.
pupils can be placed in their respective classes, according to their
ct and diligence, every week or month; but in the first classes oftener,
teacher thinks it advisable.
mission to absent themselves from a single lesson may be granted by
achers; for more than one, the permission must be obtained from the
Inspector.
nishments consist in reprimands, in giving a lower place in the class, in
after school hours, and, where obstinate persistence in faults is ob-
, in blows with a cane on the hand in a manner that is not dangerous.
eacher only takes cognizance of faults committed in school, or on the
o and from school. Bad conduct at other times is only punished at
when the parents and guardians palpably neglect their duty.

5. The school-rooms should have ten feet in hight, and be built on scale of six square feet to a pupil.

PLAN OF INSTRUCTION.—The aim of the primary school is to cultiva the intellect of the child, and to form his understanding and religious pri ciples, as well as to furnish him with the knowledge requisite for his stati in life. Instruction must, therefore, be imparted in such a manner as sh improve the mind.

The pupil must have his attention sharpened, and his intellectual energi must be brought into activity. He must learn nothing mechanically. T memory must not be cultivated, except in connection with the understan ing and the feelings. The formation of every idea is to be preceded by t requisite insight into its fundamental principle, whether exemplified by o jects or figuratively. In all explanations the elementary principles mu precede the complex views. What has been learnt must be made famili by frequent application and illustration. The instruction given in the diffe ent classes must correspond with the plan here laid down.

Religious Instruction.—Care must be taken that the lesson in religi does not degenerate into a mechanical learning of sayings and of chapte from the Bible. The pupil's insight into all points must be clear and w grounded; his feelings must be roused, and his good propensities must confirmed.

The nature of the instruction given in religion is to be regulated in det by the highest authority in the various confessions; it is to be communicat through the catechism and school books approved by these authorities a sanctioned by the State. In this lesson the duties of the citizen are to enforced.

The school is to open and close daily with a short prayer or hymn, a the children are to be kept to regular attendance at church, the subject of t last sermon being a matter for the catechist to examine them upon.

Grammatical Instruction.—Grammatical instruction must be connect with exercises in correct thinking, as well as in the fittest mode of givi expression to thoughts. The consideration of the correctness of an id must precede that of the mode of expressing it.

The organs of speech must be exercised until completely formed, and due modulation of the voice must be cultivated. The writing lesson mu teach neatness and a love of form.

Arithmetical Instruction.—Comprises the four rules, preceded by prop explanation of the properties and nature of figures, and simultaneously e ercised, mentally and in writing. The mental calculation is to precede t written sum on all occasions. After practicing the rules in whole nu bers, fractions, and with given simple or compound quantities in exampl applicable in common life.

In the second class the construction of simple geometrical figures is be taught both to boys and girls. In the highest class the use of the squa and compass, and the mode of reducing to proportionate dimensions, is be taught.

Musical Instruction.—The classes range as follows:—

First class.—Exercises of the ear and the voice. Simple solo airs.
Second class.—Duets and easy chorus singing.
Third class.—Chorus and ornamental singing.

General Instruction.—In natural history and philosophy, geography, hi tory, sanitary points, and agriculture, will be imparted by the pieces select in the reading-books, and can be enforced and illustrated by additional e amples and reasoning on the part of the teacher.

Division of Time.—Half an hour daily must be devoted to religious i struction, but this time may be prolonged or abridged, according to t subject-matter treated of.

study of the mother-tongue, combined with reading and writing, is
py a portion of six days in the week, in addition to copies to be
out of school hours. Arithmetic is to be taken four times, and
twice in the week. Instruction in matters of general interest is to
n to the second class once and to the highest class three times in
k.

plan of the school is to be arranged between the teachers and the
or for every half-year, and a draft of it must be laid before the school
ties once a year, together with the results of the inspection. When
dren appear behindhand in particular points of instruction, more time
appropriated to those in the following year.

e scholars of one school be of different religious confessions, care is
ken that they receive their religious instruction at the same hour.
chool belong exclusively to one confession, but is also attended by
of another confession, the instruction in religion must be fixed in
hour of attendance, that such as do not participate in it may go
r wherever such instruction may be provided for them.

ide the primary schools, the following classes are established by
part of the educational system of this Duchy, and are provided for
primary school-houses.

NING CLASSES.—Twice a week, during the winter, in every vil-
nd town, an evening class must be opened under the proper
authority, when young persons who have completed their four-
year, and have left the primary school, may continue their
.

DAY CLASSES.—All young people who have completed the pri-
chool course, are obliged to attend, in the towns for two years
the villages for three years, a class every Sunday morning, not
r religious, but for secular instruction.

USTRIAL CLASSES.—As a general rule, men are employed both
cipal and assistants in the primary schools, and boys and girls of
me age and proficiency are taught in the same class-rooms. To
the girls to acquire the arts of sewing, knitting, &c., the school
ttee are obliged to engage some suitable person to attend every
in which a female assistant is not employed, for an hour at least
afternoon after the boys are dismissed, to instruct the girls from
mpletion of their eleventh year in the mysteries of stitching, hem-
darning, shirt making, knitting, &c. If their mothers wish it, the
ring their sewing from home with them for this practice, but if
o not bring any material, the committee must provide it. No fee
rged for this industrial training. The inspectors are required to
on the state and progress of these as well as the other classes of
hools.

TORY SCHOOLS.—No child may be employed in any manual oc-
on, until it has completed its ELEVENTH year; nor may any child,
t the completion of its eleventh year, be employed in a factory,
n industrial occupation, unless it then attends the so called "*Fac-*
chools."

laws prescribe, that in these schools—

greater number of children than seventy may ever be educated
er at the same time.

secular education given in them, must correspond to that pre-
d by law, for the primary schools in general.

person may be selected, as a teacher of one of these schools, who
ot obtained a diploma from the committee of public examiners for
uchy.

h child attending a factory must receive, at least, two hours'
ction in the factory school.

hours of instruction should precede the morning and afternoon's working hours; but where this is impossible, an hour's relaxation m intervene between the hours of labor and the commencement of hours of study.

In the middle of the above-mentioned morning and afternoon wo ing hours, the children must be allowed to take a quarter of an hou exercise outside the mill, and in the middle of the day, there must an interval of a full hour between the morning and the afternoon wo ing hours.

Young people under the age of fifteen, are not to be employed m than twelve hours a day in the factory and factory school together.

Such young people are not to be employed in labor before o'clock in the morning, nor after five in the evening, nor on Sunday holidays.

All masters of factories, who employ young people under the age fifteen, must render periodical lists of the children employed by the giving the names, ages, places of residence, and names of the parent such children.

Any infringement of any of the above regulations will render manufacturer offending liable to fines, the amount of which is fixed law.

The county magistrates are charged with the strenuous enforcem of these regulations.

All the expenses of the education of the children attending a fact before the completion of their fourteenth year, must be borne by owner of the factory which they attend.

Teachers' Conferences.—In each union (district or circle) union inspector is obliged, every September, *i. e.*, during the holid to send notices to every teacher in his district, to assemble at a pl and time specified in the notice.

Every teacher, who receives the notice, is required by law to ass ble at the place and time therein mentioned.

Notices are sent also to each of the religious ministers of the un that those, who are able, may meet the teachers. The educatio magistrate of the county, or some one representing him, is also alw at the meeting.

The notices are sent round as early as the month of May, preced the meeting. The inspector, when he issues them, sends at the sa time to each teacher in his district, one or two questions on some po connected either with the practice, or the methods of teaching, or some of the various subjects of instruction, and upon which there been some difference of opinion or practice.

Each teacher is required to send to the inspector an answer to th questions by the month of August.

When the inspector has received these answers, he reads them c fully through, and writes a short and concise criticism of each ans and reads it to the teachers when assembled at the conference.

After the inspector has read the answers and criticisms to the meet the teachers proceed to debate the subject among themselves, rising after another, and addressing the meeting upon it by turn.

When this debate is concluded, three teachers, who had been cho by the previous meeting, are then called upon to instruct a class of c dren before the rest of the assembly, in different branches of instruct Their performances are then criticised and discussed by the others, had been looking on as spectators.

This plan serves two important ends:

1st. It stimulates each of the teachers to aim at continual self-impro ment, in order that he may excel his competitors at the yearly m and prove himself worthy of recommendation by the inspector to more lucrative situations as they fall vacant, and also that he may the respect and approval of his professional brethren.

It obliges the teachers to *think* over the various methods of instion; to consider how they may teach in the most effective manner; oid bad and slothful habits with their scholars, and to observe how to catch and retain the attention of their scholars, and how most tually to interest them in the subjects of instruction.

these meetings, also, the teachers arrange the affairs of their book Every teacher in each union is a member of the teachers' union club. They each pay a small sum monthly, and with the sum collected, a few books are purchased and sent round from one to ier. At the September meetings, they choose the treasurer of book club, and determine what books are to be purchased.

fore the meeting is dissolved, a short account of all the proceedings wn up; and is then signed by the inspector, the magistrate present meeting, and all the teachers, and forwarded to the chief magis of the county, in which the union is situated.

e expenses of each teacher, incurred by attending these yearly rences, are defrayed by the state.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED IN THE TWO CLASSES AT THE NORMAL SEMINARY, CARLSRUHE, IN THE SUMMER HALF YEAR OF 1839.

HOURS.	CLASSES.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
7 to 8	First	New Testament,	Old Testament,	Geometry,	New Testament,	Old Testament,	New Testament.
	Second	New Testament,	Old Testament,	Catechism,	New Testament,	Old Testament,	New Testament.
8 to 9	First	Singing,	Geography,	Organ,	Geography,	Singing,	Natural history.
	Second	Profane history,	Organ,	Singing,	Organ,	Geography,	Organ.
9 to 10	First	Organ,	Composition,	Singing,	Singing,	Arithmetic,	Composition.
	Second	Arithmetic,	Singing,	Geography,	Singing,	Singing,	Organ.
10 to 11	First	Grammar,	Grammar,	Singing,	Grammar,	Singing,	Grammar.
	Second	Singing,	Geometry,	Grammar,	Profane history,	Grammar,	Arithmetic.
11 to 12	First	Singing and organ,	Organ,	Natural history,	Organ,	Organ,	Natural history.
	Second	Natural history,	Natural philosophy,	Singing,	Natural history,	Natural philosophy,	Singing.
2 to 3	First	Writing,	Agriculture,	. .	Writing,	Agriculture,	Organ.
	Second	Drawing,	Arithmetic,	. .	Drawing,	Arithmetic,	Art of teaching deaf and dumb.
3 to 4	First	Drawing,	Geometry,	. .	Drawing,	Geometry,	Composition.
	Second	Writing,	Historical composition,	. .	Writing,	Composition,	. .
4 to 5	First	Geometry,	Organ,	. .	Organ,	. .	Singing.
	Second	Organ,	. . .	. .	. .	Geometry,	Singing.
5 to 6	First	Piano and organ,	Historical composition,	. .	Piano and organ,	. .	. .
	Second	. .	Organ,	. .	Piano and organ,	Organ,	. .

WIRTEMBERG.

IRTEMBERG was one of the earliest of the German states to establish
aduated system of public instruction, from the common school to the
ersity, and has always shared largely in all the educational move-
s of Germany. The framework of the school system in operation
48, was substantially the same as it was in 1538, enlarged from time
ne to meet the demands of the age for new institutions and a more
l and practical instruction. With a population of 1,750,000 there
the following institutions, aided by the government, in 1847:

e University at Tübingen, with six faculties, seventy-one professors,
00 students.
ne Real Schools, with seventy teachers.
Gymnasia, each with ten professors and three assistants, (that at
gart has twenty-six professors.)
ve Lycea, each with seven teachers.
ghty-seven Latin Schools, in which eighty-six classical teachers, sixty-
al teachers, and forty-four assistants are employed.
e Protestant Theological Seminary at Tübingen, with fifteen teach-
nd four preparatory theological schools in other parts, each having
achers and thirty pupils.
e Catholic Theological Seminary.
e Polytechnic School, with twenty-one teachers and a course of in-
ion embracing four years, for engineers, architects, &c.
e Institute for Agriculture and Forestry at Hohenhein, the most
lete agricultural establishment in Europe.
e Veterinary School, with five professors.
o Orphan Houses, each having 278 orphans.
ven Schools of Art and Drawing.
e Superior Seminary for Protestant girls, at Obenstenfeld, with
n teachers.
e Superior Seminary for Catholic girls, at Stuttgart, with thirteen
teachers, and thirteen female teachers.
e Institute for Deaf Mutes and the Blind.
e thousand four hundred and fifty-five Protestant Common Schools.
ven hundred and eighty-seven Catholic Schools.
. Teachers' Seminaries.

ese institutions, providing on a liberal scale for the educational
of the whole community, are all in some way aided by the govern-
and subject to its supervision through the Home Department.
rdinate to this department is the Evangelical Consistory, having
e of the Protestant, and the Church Council, having charge of the

Catholic seminaries, of the higher grade. Below these, for each of the four circles, or districts into which the kingdom is divided, there are Superintendents of each denomination, for the Real and Latin Schools; and School Inspectors for the Common Schools; and Directors of School Conferences, (Teachers' Institutes,) which are held four times in each year, for the improvement of the teachers, at different points.

Each *locality*, comprising thirty families, is compelled by law to have a primary school. Localities containing a population of less than thirty families, are compelled by law to unite with a neighboring locality in the establishment of a school. If the neighboring locality is at a distance of more than two and a half English miles, or the road thereto dangerous, then the Government Committee of Education can decree the establishment of a separate school even for fifteen families.

If in a community of different religious confessions the minority comprises sixty families, they may claim the establishment and support of a school of their own confession at the expense of the whole community. The expenses are paid by the whole community, without regard to religious confessions, and by each individual in proportion to the amount of taxes paid by him. In poor communities the government contributes in part toward the salary of the schoolmaster and repairs of the school.

The salaries of the schoolmaster are, in places containing 4000 inhabitants, 350 florins* and house-rent; in places containing less than 4000 and more than 2000 inhabitants, 300 florins, and house-rent. In a school where more than sixty scholars attend, 250 florins, and house-rent. In a school where less than sixty scholars attend, 200 florins, and house-rent.

Second schoolmasters receive a salary of 150 florins, and are allowed one room and fuel. An assistant schoolmaster (candidate) receives a salary of 120 florins. In a school where the number of scholars exceeds ninety, two schoolmasters are allowed; if more than 180 scholars, three schoolmasters; if more than 270 scholars, four schoolmasters; and so on in proportion.

The school hours are, in summer, four hours per day; in winter, six hours per day.

The school is under the inspection of the clergyman of the confession to which the schoolmaster belongs, and under the control of the presbytery.

There is in each district a special school inspector, who is a clergyman. The visitation of the schools is made by the school inspector of the district, the clergyman, and the presbytery of the community. The attendance of every child at the primary school is compulsory, unless he frequents a superior school, or receives private instruction, such as he would obtain at the primary school. If parents forbid their children's attendance at the school, or do not allow their receiving private instruction, they subject themselves to a fine, and even imprisonment; and if afterward they should still refuse to allow the children to attend the school, then the police is requested to adopt such measures as will compel the children to visit the

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* A florin is thirty-eight cents.

If a child, by reason of health or otherwise, is unable to attend lic school, then the parents or guardians are obliged to see that he private instruction, and, if unable to pay for it, the community is to supply the means. Children who have not frequented the prihools, are equally obliged to attend the public examinations.

ight of selecting a teacher for a vacant school belongs to the local- in many instances, the locality has ceded this right to the authorving the supervision of the seminaries. The professional training rovement of teachers in public institutions are provided for by six rs' Seminaries, sixty Teachers' Associations or Conferences, and annual courses of one or two weeks duration, similar to our rs' Institutes, held at twelve different places in the kingdom.

candidates for the post of schoolmaster are not permitted to enter inary before they have reached seventeen years of age; nor does ucation for that most responsible situation, nor the proofs of their ity for it, begin at their entrance into the Normal School. Long hat period they must give notice of their intention to devote themo such pursuits, and must undergo a previous preparation of two re they are allowed to enter the seminary.

course lasts two years, tuition is free, and the poor receive assist- to board.

Seminary at Esslingen, under Director Denzel, is one of the oldest st celebrated seminaries in Europe. It was founded in 1757, and ly sixty pupils, it has a director, two chief masters, and three ts. The director is the author of the most complete treatise on on in any language. It is entitled the "*Introduction to the Scid Art of Education and Instruction for Masters of Primary* ." Six volumes, Stuttgart, 1839. The author thus explains the of his undertaking the work in his preface to the last edition:

en, three and twenty years ago, I entered upon my present occugreat exertions were already in progress for the improvement of ientary schools of Germany. Much had been accomplished in ar states, and much active discussion was going on with respect iethods pursued, and the best means of raising the qualifications choolmaster. But the times required something more than had n done for the popular schools. It came more and more to be ood that the school was not merely a place of instruction, but of on; that the common and necessary acquirements of the arts of writing, and ciphering were not to be the sole or the principal of its care, but rather the unfolding and strengthening of the and bodily powers of the child conformably with nature and circes. When this began to be held to be the province of the ele- y school, a new era broke upon it. Viewed in this its new and osition, it assumed a totally different aspect, and all relating to it l to be dealt with in a more serious and scientific manner. This change of view respecting the real character and destiny of the tary school, though long in progress, became at length universal, through the genius and exertions of Pestalozzi, whose principles, here only partially adopted, facilitated and infused a new spirit processes of teaching."

He proceeds to state that, being called at that period to the duty training schoolmasters, and therefore desiring to find some manual or tre tise which embraced the entire subject, according to the enlarged vie then entertained of it, he was unable to meet with any that satisfied l wishes. Those that he found, either merely embodied the old views contained fragments only of the new. After many fruitless attempts compose out of those fragments something that would serve as a groun work for his course of teaching, he found himself compelled to form a tre tise for himself; which has grown, with the experience of twenty yea into the valuable "Introduction," now widely known by his name. The f lowing is the summary of his introductory course of instruction to teache

PART I.

Chap. 1. Man as an organized, sentient, and intellectual being.
- 2. Constitution and qualities of the body and mind.
  - § 1. Of the body.
  - § 2. Of the mind and its principal faculties.
    - A. The feelings.
    - B. The understanding.
    - C. The will.
      - Union of the highest powers in a Christian faith.
      - Varieties of natural constitution and disposition, and their caus
- 3. On the liability of the faculties and disposition of childhood to take a wr direction.
- 4. On the natural course of development in childhood, boyhood, and youth.
  - § 1. On the gradual development of the mental powers.
- 5. Man in his social state.
- 6. Man as an immortal being.

PART II.

- 1. On education in general.
- 2. On the training of the body.
- 3. On the training of the mind.
  - § 1. On the regulation of the feelings.
  - § 2. On the strengthening of the understanding.
    - Observation and attention.
    - Imagination.
    - Memory.
    - Judgment.
  - § 3. On the regulation of the will.
    - The moral sense.
    - Force of habit.
    - The love of what is right.
    - Obedience.
    - Perseverance.
    - Order and punctuality.
  - § 4. Religion—The best means of fixing religious impressions on the m of a child.
- 4. On educating boys and girls together.
- 5. On rewards and punishments.
- 6. On elementary instruction.
  - § 1. Subjects—On the proper periods for commencing each.
  - § 2. Method—The synthetic.
    - Requisites of good teaching.
    - Apparatus, &c.

In his second volume, the author enlarges on some of the principles laid down in first, and on the spirit and object of the primary school, the best modes of organiza and management, &c. The third and remaining volumes form a School Manual of f complete "courses," for children between the respective ages of six and eight, eight ten, ten and twelve, twelve and fourteen. The subjects treated of at length, for the g ance of teachers, are object lessons, instruction in reading, writing, and ciphering, r gious instruction, grammar and etymology, geography, elements of geometry, sing elements of natural philosophy and natural history, composition, &c. General exp tions of the principles to be kept in view, and the ends to be aimed at, are given, toget with specimens of the lessons in detail, and the substance of a useful course under e head.

following notice of education in Wirtemberg, is taken from
“*Social Condition and Education of the People.*”

veled through the kingdom of Wirtemberg from Ulm to a town in the in-
y night. My companions in the eilwagen, or diligence, were an Oxford
a German, and a Frenchman. The subject of our conversation, during
t of the night, was, the efforts of the Germany governments and people to
the children of their poor. The Oxford Fellow would not credit the ac-
gave him of these efforts, and affected, moreover, to laugh at them as
and chimerical. I saw it would be impossible to make a convert of him
ment, and so, to save words, I ended the conversation by saying, “Well,
re ever in the streets of a German town between eight and nine o'clock,
een twelve and one o'clock, in the morning, observe what is then going
remember what I told you.”

next morning it so happened, that we stopped about eight o'clock to change
in a small town, about half way between Ulm and Stuttgard. It was just
he primary schools commenced their morning's work. All the children
their way to their respective classes. I made the “Fellow” get out of
gence, and regard what was going on in the streets at that early hour.
street in which we had drawn up, was full of clean, neatly-dressed chil-
ach carrying a small bag of books in his hand, or a little goatskin knapsack
books on his back. There were no rags, and no unseemly patched and
clothes. The little girls were neat, their hair was dressed with a great
taste, their frocks were clean and tastefully made. Their appearance would
d a stranger to imagine, that they were the children of parents belonging
middle classes of society. I said to my companion,—“These orderly, clean,
pectable-looking children are, many of them, the sons and daughters of the
artizans and laborers.” In England, they would have been the “ragged-
children,” or the squalid players in the gutters and back alleys. There
as no perceptible difference between the children of the poorest laborer and
dren of the shopkeeper or rich parent. They all looked equally clean, re-
le, polite, and intelligent. I said to the Fellow, “Are you convinced
He turned to me and answered, “Yes, yes; this is, indeed, a very in-
g and very curious sight. I do not any longer doubt the accuracy of all
d me last night. It is certainly very remarkable.” That ten minutes
my companion more than he would have learned by days of argument.
reflection, to which it leads every beholder, is, “are all the children of
ny like these? Is there no class of children in Germany like those, which
p in the gutters and alleys of our English towns? No wonder then, if this
hat there is so much less pauperism in Germany than in England, and
poor are so much more prosperous, virtuous, and happy, than our own.”

ive an idea of the liberal scale on which the teachers' training colleges in
nberg are regulated, I shall give the list of the professors and teachers at-
to the colleges at Esslingen and Nurtingen; and the subjects of education
in them.

he number of professors and teachers at the teachers' college at Esslingen
temberg, are—

irector, who officiates also as first Professor.
rofessors of the Sciences.
rofessor of Music.
eachers.
ssistant for the Musical Professor.
eacher of the Jewish religion, (he conducts the dogmatical education of the
Jewish students.)
eacher of Music for the model practicing school attached to the College.
reasurer and Accountant for the College.
hysician for the College.

number of students at this college was eighty.

Number of professors and teachers at the normal college of Nurtingen, in
nberg.

1 Director, who acts as first Professor.
1 Professor of the Sciences.
2 Head Teachers.
2 Assistant Teachers.
1 Teacher of Music.
1 Teacher of Music, for the model school attached to the College.
1 Treasurer and Accountant.
1 Physician for the College.

The number of students in this college was eighty.

THE SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION in the teachers' colleges of Wirtemberg, follows :—

Religion.
Moral Philosophy.
German Language.
History—(General, German, and Scriptural.)
Arithmetic.
Algebra.
Plane Geometry.
Logic.
The Principles of Natural History.
Physical Geography.
The Philosophy of the Human Mind.
Pedagogy.
Practice in Teaching.
Theory of Music.
The Piano-forte and Organ.
Chanting and Singing.

I beg my readers to look at these lists and compare the efforts made by a province of Germany not containing so many inhabitants as London, with made by us; when the numbers of our working population are, like our merce, increasing with such an astonishing rapidity.

The educational laws of Wirtemberg require the parishes to support, for ninety children, one teacher; for more than ninety children, two teachers more than 180 children, three teachers; for more than 270 children, four t ers; and so on in like proportion.

If a country parish is very poor it is allowed, on proof of its inability to find for the support of the required number of teachers, to diminish the numb two conditions, viz. :—

1st. That very able men are selected; and
2ndly. That one teacher is provided for every 120 children.

INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURE AND FORESTRY

AT

HOHENHEIM, NEAR STUTTGARD.

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s is the most complete agricultural school in Europe, and extends its useful-ot only throughout, but beyond Wirtemberg. It was established in 1817, Agricultural Society of Wirtemberg, under the patronage of the king, evoted a royal seat, with extensive buildings, to the purposes of the institu- Tho farm includes nearly one thousand acres, exclusively appropriated to pport of the school, or the practical instruction of the pupils. In 1820 the of forestry was united with this, and the pupils now follow, in part, the courses.

entire institution is divided into two departments, one of which is intended a higher general and practical education than the other. In the higher, ject is less the acquisition of manual dexterity in the operations of agricul-han the knowledge required to superintend them; while in the lower, the e is the principal end. The latter department ranks with the rural schools itzerland and the agricultural school of Templemoyle, in Ireland, hereafter bed. In the higher school, all the pupils are expected to pay for their edu- In the lower, natives of Wirtemberg are admitted gratis, if their cir-nces require it. Foreigners may be admitted to either; their payments however, on a much higher scale than those of natives.*

direction of the establishment is delegated by the Agricultural Society to tor and treasurer, the former of whom has the general superintendence of concerns of the institution, while the latter is responsible for its financial o the society and to the royal exchequer. The director is also an instructor. are, besides, four regular or ordinary professors, and four extraordinary ors, besides an overseer and steward, for the management of the farm and tic economy. The treasurer has a book-keeper and an assistant in his ment.

ils are admitted at seventeen years of age, and are expected to possess ele-ry attainments necessary to the prosecution of the courses of the school. en 1820 and 1836, one hundred and eighty natives and one hundred and -two foreigners have been educated in agriculture, and one hundred and even natives and one hundred and seventy-seven foreigners in forestry, g a total of five hundred and thirty-nine in the institution. The number of in the higher school in 1836 was seventy-two. That in the lower school ted to twenty-seven.

pupils of the *lower school*, in general, come under obligations to remain years at the institution, in consideration of which their payments for instruc-re diminished, in part, in the second year, and cease in the third. They gaged in the operations of the farm, the garden, and other parts of the es-ment, which will hereafter be enumerated, under the direction of the work-and under the superintendence of the steward, their time being so distribu-at they may acquire practice in the various operations of farming. They so required to attend certain of the lectures given to the higher classes, and e instruction at times when they are not engaged in agricultural labor. receive regular wages for work done, for which they are expected to pay eir maintenance and clothing. Premiums are given to those who display skill and industry. While in the house, the younger pupils are under the

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r the yearly courses at the higher school natives pay forty dollars, and foreigners one ed and twenty dollars. For instruction in forestry only, a native pays twenty-four , and a stranger seventy-two dollars. For the three years' instruction in the lower , natives pay forty dollars.

charge of the elder ones, and are under the general superintendence of the o
seer. The same superintendence exists in the refectory and dormitories. It
serves the double purpose of economy, and of training the elder pupils in
management of men, which is one object of their education. The institu
undertakes to find places for those pupils who have given satisfaction while in
school, on their completing its courses.

The agricultural course of the *higher school* may be accomplished in one y
if the preliminary studies of the pupil have been directed with a view to hi
tering, but in general it requires two years. The same period of two y
is required for that of forestry. Each scholastic year has two sessions, the
from the first of November to Palm-Sunday, and the other from two weeks
Palm-Sunday to the first of October. The intermediate periods are vacation

The branches of special theoretical instruction are as follows:

First: *Agriculture*. General principles of farming and horticulture, including the cu
of the vine. The breeding of cattle. Growing of wool. Raising of horses. Rearing o
worms. Arrangement and direction of farms. Estimation of the value of farms. I
keeping

Second: *Forestry*. Encyclopedia of Forestry. Botany of forests. Culture and su
tendence of forests. Guard of forests. Hunting. Taxation. Uses of forests. Techno
Laws and regulations, accounts, and technical correspondence relating to forests.

Third: *Accessory branches*. Veterinary art. Agriculture technology, especially the
ufacture of beet sugar, brewing, vinegar making, and distilling. The construction of
and hydraulic works.

Besides these special branches, the following general courses are pursued:

First: *The Natural Sciences*. Geology. Physiology of plants. Botany, as applied
riculture and forestry. Natural history of animals beneficial or noxious to plants and
General chemistry, and its applications to agriculture. Physics and meteorology.

Second: *Mathematics*. Theoretical and practical. Geometry. Elements of trigono
Arithmetic. Elements of algebra.

The institution possesses the most ample means for the illustration of
courses in its farm and collections. The farm is divided into arable land,
five hundred and one acres; meadow land, two hundred and forty-two a
fields set apart for experiments, thirty-three acres; woodland, thirteen a
nursery, sixty-seven acres; plantation of hops, two acres; botanical garden,
teen acres; ground for exercising the pupils in ploughing, two acres; ga
one acre; the remainder eighty-five acres. Total, nine hundred and sixty
The arable land is cultivated according to five different rotations of crops, th
pupils may have specimens of the varieties of system. The botanical ga
nursery, and experimental farm, are prominent parts of the establishment.
is a large stock of cattle of different kinds, foreign and domestic, and of s
that the pupils may acquire practical knowledge of the relative advanta
different breeds, the mode of taking care of the stock generally, and of re
them for different purposes. Horses are kept for a riding-school, as well
the purposes of the farm. The institution has a large collection of agricu
implements in use in Wirtemberg, and of models of the varieties of foreig
new implements. These are made in a workshop attached to the school,
afford practice in the manufacture to the pupils, as well as instruction by
use or inspection, with the explanations of the professors. The sale of thes
plements and models also contributes to the support of the establishment.
are two collections of seeds and grain—one as specimens for illustrating th
tures, the other in quantities for sale. The pupils learn the mode of prese
them, and useful seeds are distributed through the country. There is a c
tion of soils of all kinds for the lecturers on terra-culture and the analysis of
with specimens of the means of amelioration used in different cases. The c
tions of natural history, though small, are interesting, from the precise adap
of the specimens to the objects of the school. They consist of birds, beasts
insects, and of plants, woods, and rocks. The woods are arranged in the fo
a library, the separate specimens having the forms of books given to them
being covered in part with the bark. The name is inscribed upon the
Cross and longitudinal sections are usually found in the same book, formin
covers. Between the covers is a box containing the seeds and flowers o
tree, the parasites, &c., and a description. There is a small collection of p

aratus, a library, and a laboratory. The following farming and technologi-
ablishments are connected with the school, and worked by the pupils, under
arge of the teachers: namely, a cider-press and appurtenances; a beet-
nanufactory, a brewery, a distillery, and a vinegar manufactory. Though
better individual collections than these, the whole suite stands unrivaled,
s my examination extended.

mination takes place every year, which are obligatory upon those forestry
who intend to enter the service of the government; strangers are not re-
to be examined. Persons wishing to learn the details of the institution,
received as visitors for a period not exceeding a month, living with the

pupil in the higher school has his own sleeping-room; or, at most, two
ogether. They bring their supplies of clothing, &c., at entrance. The
are kept in order by the servants, who receive a small compensation from
oil. They take their dinner and supper in a common hall, and order what
ease for breakfast from the stewart's assistant.* This institution has sup-
itself for several years, which is readily to be understood from the scale of
ning operations. The success of the farm does not depend exclusively upon
oductive manual labor of the pupils. It is analogous to the support of a
on a large estate, the members of the family aiding in the work, and con-
ng also in money to their own support, but the working of the farm not de-
g entirely upon their manual exertions.

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dinner and supper cost four dollars a month, which is paid in advance to the
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COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED IN THE THREE CLASSES AT THE NORMAL SEMINARY, ESSLINGEN, WURTEMBURG, IN THE SUMMER HALF YEAR OF 1839.

HOURS.	CLASSES.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
6 to 7	First	Arithmetic,	Art of questioning,	Geometry,	Art of questioning,	Arithmetic,	Methods of instruction.
	Second	Methods of instruction,	Arithmetic,	. . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	Arithmetic.
	Third	. . . . .	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction,	. . . . .
8 to 9	First	Attend model school,	Attend model school,	Attend model school,	Attend model school,	Attend model school,	Attend model school.
	Second	Geography,	Natural history,	Profane history,	Natural history,	Geography,	Profane history.
	Third	Piano or arithmetic,	Piano or geometry,	Piano or arithmetic,	Piano or geometry,	Piano or arithmetic,	Piano or geometry.
9 to 10	First	Methods of instruction,	Grammar,	Composition,	Grammar,	Composition,	Grammar.
	Second	Geometry,	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction,	Geometry.
	Third	Grammar,	Grammar,	Composition,	Grammar,	Grammar,	Grammar.
10 to 11	First	Thorough bass,	Geography,	Thorough bass,	Composition,	Recitations,	Examinations.
	Second	Grammar,	Grammar,	Composition,	Grammar,	Grammar,	Examinations.
	Third	. . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	Examinations.
11 to 12	First	Singing,	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction,	Singing.
	Second	Singing,	Methods of instruction,	. . . . .	Arithmetic or piano,	Methods of instruction,	Singing.
	Third	Geometry or violin,	Arithmetic or piano,	Geometry or piano,	. . . . .	Geometry or piano,	Arithmetic or piano.
1 to 2	First	Organ,	Organ or methods of in-	Organ,	Organ,	Organ or composition,	Organ.
	Second	Drawing,	Writing, [struction,	. . . . .	Writing,	Drawing,	. . . . .
	Third	. . . . .	Drawing,	Recitations,	. . . . .	. . . . .	Drawing.
2 to 3	First	Organ,	Organ,	Organ,	Methods of instruction,	Organ,	Organ.
	Second	Recitations,	. . . . .	. . . . .	. . . [or organ,	Recitations,	Arithmetic.
	Third	Writing,	. . . . .	Writing,	. . . . .	Writing,	Recitations.
3 to 4	First	Drawing,	Writing,	Methods of instruction,	Drawing,	Writing,	. . . . .
	Second	Piano,	Piano,	Piano,	Piano,	Piano,	Piano.
	Third	. . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .
4 to 5	First	Methods of instruction,	Natural philosophy,	Art of teaching deaf and dumb,	Natural history,	Natural philosophy,	Art of teaching deaf and dumb.
	Second	Piano,	Piano,	Piano,	Piano,	Piano,	Piano.
	Third	Singing,	Geography,	Profane history,	Geography,	Profane history,	Geometry.
5 to 6	First	Methodic,	Profane history,	Singing,	Methods of instruction,	Profane history,	Singing,
	Second	Thorough bass,	Thorough bass,	Singing,	Thorough bass,	Thorough bass,	Singing,
	Third	. . . . .	Natural history,	Singing,	. . . . .	Natural history,	Singing,

NORMAL SCHOOLS

IN

HESSE-CASSEL, AND NASSAU.

ıs Electorate of Hesse-Cassel, with a population of 750,000 inhabi-
, has three seminaries for teachers, viz.: at Fulda, Homberg and
ıchtern.

ıe course of instruction embraces three years, and each seminary re-
s sixty pupils, who are divided into two classes. The division of
and allotment of studies in one of the best of these seminaries in the
ıer of 1839, may be seen on the opposite page.

NASSAU.

e Duchy of Nassau, with a population of 420,000, supports one
hers' Seminary at Idstein, which in 1846 had 154 pupils. The course
five years, four of which are devoted to a regular course of instruc-
ı a thorough review of the studies pursued in the elementary schools
he acquisition of studies which facilitate and illustrate the teaching
former, and the fifth, exclusively to the principles and practice of
ıtion. Pupils are admitted at the age of fourteen years. The library
institution is free to teachers in any part of the Duchy, and the
are forwarded and returned by the government post without charge.
36 the government expended 3,596 thalers toward the expenses of
and lodging of the pupils.

HANOVER.

e Kingdom of Hanover, with a population of 1,790,000, supports
Teachers' Seminaries. One of these, established in 1848, is devoted
education of Jewish teachers. The course embraces three years,
ı addition to the studies and exercises embraced in the seminaries
otestant and Catholic teachers, includes the study of Hebrew, the
'estament, and the commentaries of Hebrew scholars on the same.
s a practical religious toleration beyond any thing seen in the rest
rope. One of the seminaries is designated as the Chief Seminary,
ceives as pupils only those who have already taught school.

e practice of "boarding round," which constitutes one of the distin-
ing marks of a bad state of public education, still prevails to some
in Hanover. "I confess with shame," said a Director of a Teach-
eminary in Hanover, to Professor Stephens, now of Girard College of
ıns, "that this relic of barbarism may still be seen in a few villages
kingdom, but it must soon vanish before the light which a well-
ted class of teachers is diffusing among the people." This "relic
barism," necessarily disappears, where the business of teaching be-
a profession, and the teacher becomes permanently employed in
me place.

MECKLENBURG SCHWERIN.

Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg Schwerin, with a population of
0, supports two seminaries, viz.: at Ludwigslust, and Rostock.
ıst is in connection with the University, and embraces a course of
months for students of Theology, who wish to be appointed tem-
y to situations as teachers.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED BY THE TWO CLASSES AT THE NORMAL SEMINARY AT SCHLUCHTERN, HESSE CASSEL.

HOURS.	CLASSES.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
7 to 8 . . .	First . .	Attend model school,	Attend model school,	Attend model school,	Attend model school,	Attend model school,	Attend model school.
	Second .	Life of Christ,	Life of Christ,	Catechism,	Life of Christ,	Life of Christ,	Catechism.
8 to 9 . . .	First . .	Catechism,	Catechism,	Art of questioning,	Catechism,	Catechism,	Art of questioning.
	Second .	Bible explanations,	Arithmetic,	Arithmetic,	Bible explanations,	Arithmetic,	Arithmetic.
9 to 10 . .	First . .	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ.
	Second .	Composition,	Thorough bass,	Geography,	Composition,	Singing,	Geography.
10 to 11 . .	First . .	Natural philosophy,	Arithmetic,	Catechetical exercises,	Natural philosophy,	Composition,	Arithmetic.
	Second .	Reading,	Grammar,	Geometry,	Grammar,	Geometry,	Grammar.
11 to 12 . .	First . .	Singing,	Violin,	Thorough bass,	Singing,	Violin,	Singing.
	Second .			Writing,			Writing.
1 to 2 . . .	First . .	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ.
	Second .	Piano,	Drawing,	Botany,	Piano,	Drawing,	Botany.
2 to 3 . . .	First . .	Botany,	Art of teaching writing,	Attend model school,	Botany,	Attend model school,	Geography.
	Second .	Piano,	Piano,	Biblical history,	Piano,	Piano,	Singing.
3 to 4 . . .	First . .	Reading and explanation of German classics,	German history,	Geography,	Reading and explanation of German classics,	German history,	. . .
	Second .	Piano,	Piano,	Reading,	Piano,	Piano,	. .
5 to 6 . . .	First . .	Religious instruction,	Art of teaching,	Botanical excursions,	Religious instruction,	Art of teaching,	Open air exercise.
	Second .						
6 to 7 . . .	First . .	Open air exercise,	Open air exercise,		Open air exercise,	Open air exercise,	
	Second .						

BAVARIA.

IA is divided into eight provinces, 230 chief towns, 351 market
nd 15,120 villages and parishes.

dministration of public instruction is committed to four bodies, as
1. A local committee for each school, appointed by the com-
r each province, after consultation with the district committee.
rict committee for each town and village. 3. A provincial com-
or all of the schools of each province, one of whom only is paid,
must be a councilor of state. 4. A chief or head commission of
ons residing at Munich, one of whom is paid, and two of whom
aymen. At the head of this commission is the Minister of Wor-
Public Instruction. The second, third and fourth committees are
l by the king, who also appoints from time to time special inspec-
ne effective management of the schools is with the provincial
on. The special inspectors appointed by the king, are selected
board.

rents must send their children to some school, public or private,
to fourteen years of age, or be fined. The support of the schools
by parents (varying from seventy-five cents to $1,50 per year in
payments, for each child;) by a local and provincial tax, voted
listrict and province; and by the state, which appropriates about
annually, in aid of local and parental efforts. The rate paid by
nd by districts, is collected with the ordinary taxes.

ourse of instruction is the same as in the primary schools of other
Germany. Religious instruction is given to the children on sta-
and hours. If a school is composed of scholars belonging to dif-
cts, the religious instruction is given by the pastor of each sect.

school according to law must have a small nursery-garden un-
are of the teacher, where the pupils may learn the mode of treat-
and plants. Out of 6065 German schools, it appears from the
ports that 5284 had such grounds attached.

egulation adopted in 1836, every teacher appointed to a public
ust have qualified himself at one of the Normal Schools. There
n of these institutions now in operation, viz.: five for Catholic
at Bamberg, Eichstadt, Speyer, Keiserslautern, and Lauingen;
Protestant teachers, at Altdorf and Schwabach.

The oldest Seminary is at Bamburg. It was founded in 1777,
Normal School, according to the meaning at that time conveyed by
designation,—that is, a model or pattern school, to which teachers reso
for observation, and a temporary course of lectures, and was raised in
seminary, composed of teachers, in 1791. The course of instructio
1846, was as follows:

1. Religion,—explanation of the catechism, Bible History, and sa
songs.
2. German Language, speaking, reading and writing.
3. Geography, including Natural History, and History.
4. Arithmetic.
5. Drawing and Geometry.
6. Penmanship, with constant exercises in composition.
7. Music, vocal and instrumental.
8. Pedagogics, general principles of education, methods of instruc
discipline, and administration of school affairs.

The number of pupils in 1844 was thirty-one, for whom there were t
permanent teachers residing in the institution, and several teachers
ployed in special branches from the town. The pupils board in the I
tution, and are charged a small fee for the privileges of instruction, inc
ing board, lodging, tuition, &c., which is, however, reduced from tim
time, in consequence of diligence and proficiency. It does not ex
$38 in any case. The course embraces two years. Out of study h
the pupils are under the special supervision of two of the instructors.

For the Protestant teachers there are two seminaries, one at Alt
and the other at Schwabach.

Jacobi, who was formerly inspector of the Seminary at Altdorf, a
now director of the new Protestant Seminary at Schwabach, publis
the following outline of a plan for a Seminary, in his Pedagogical J
ney in 1847, and which, we may now conclude, he is aiming to realiz
the institution now in his charge.

"For the location of a seminary I should choose a large town; for, how
much may be said in favor of country towns, there are in large towns r
means of culture and teaching; teachers and pupils are more easily prov
with board; the institution is subjected to a more constant and intelligen
spection, and there is less exposure to a change of teachers, on account of
desirableness of a town residence to an educated man, and the facilities of
cation for sons and daughters.

I would have a large, healthy and attractive building, without any thin
pulsive in or about it, and in it there should be accommodations for the Di
tor, a housekeeper, and sixty pupils.

Each teacher should have his separate department: to one teacher shoul
assigned Religion, pedagogic and didactic; to another, German Language,
rature and history; to a third, Realia, (natural science,) arithmetic, penmans
and drawing; and to a fourth, the whole course of musical instruction
practice. Each teacher must not only be master of his branch, but must h
a practical power and skill to form future teachers in his department, with
being obliged to call in aid from any other teachers.

Every teacher should be adequately compensated, so as to give his w
time and soul to the institution, and he should rank with the professors in
gymnasia, and be subordinate only to the supervision of the highest gov
mental authority.

teacher should exhibit sincere piety, exemplary conduct, a glowing
e cause of education, and an enthusiastic attachment to the institu-
is country; found always on the side of education, religion and his
above all, of his profession. The Director must be a good theolo-
must be so thoroughly trained in every department of study pursued in
ition, as to be able to answer promptly the questions of the pupils;
good musician, and a ready and gifted speaker, so as to be able to touch
in leading the devotions and public exercises of the institution. He
be a man of business habits, and possess a tact in governing and
hers to his purposes. To such a director I would cheerfully com-
arge of the seminary, and to whom all other teachers must be subor-
far as the impulse and direction of the instruction and exercises are
l.

be very cautious in introducing text books, which may afterward be
xclusively by the pupils, when they become teachers. Every text
l in the school should be subjected to the sharpest competition and
scrutiny, as to its principles and methods.

ulations of the Seminary should be few and general, leaving the de-
ministration to the Director and a council of the teachers. It would
er of indifference to me, whether the pupils studied by themselves, or
ecited a particular study in the forenoon or afternoon, provided the
of all was secured, and the great end of the Institution realized in
good men, sincere Christians, sound scholars, and faithful and able

me to time, the Institution should be visited by the highest authori-
church and state, but not by subordinate and local school officers."

a has a population of about 4,250,000. The Educational Insti-
nsist of

iversities, viz., at Munich, with	1,329	students,
" Erlangen,	300	"
" Würzberg,	408	"
ceums, with	3,110	"
mnasiums,	85,681	"
chanics' Schools,	7,495	"
tin Schools,		
ytechnic Schools,	493	"
rmal Seminaries,	696	"
rman, or Common Schools,	556,239	"

stitution for the blind; one Institution for deaf mutes; one Col-
Higher Seminary for young ladies; one Academy of science;
l for artists.

llowing remarks on the schools and teachers of Bavaria, are
om Kay's "*Social Conditon and Education of the People.*"
istics differ in some particulars from those given above.

I was in Nuremburg, in the kingdom of Bavaria, I asked a poor man,
hey obliged him to send his children to school. He said, "Yes; I must
d them to school or educate them at home, or I should be fined very
I said, "I suppose you don't like these rules?" He answered, "Why
I am a very poor man; I could not afford the time to teach my chil-
elf, nor the expense of paying for their education myself; the municipal
s pay all the school fees for my children, and give them good clothes to
hool; both my children and myself are the gainers by such an arrange-
ay should I object to it?"

sbon, I spent the whole of one day in company with a poor peasant, who
y guide. I said to him, "Have you any good schools here for your chil-
He answered with an air of astonishment, "Oh dear yes, sir: all our

children go to school; the law obliges us to send them to school, and provide
schools for them." I said, "But don't you dislike being *obliged* to send
children to school?" He answered, "Why should I, sir; the teachers are
and learned men, and our children learn from them many things, which e
them afterward to get on in the world much better than they would be able
if they were ignorant and incapable of studying." I asked again, "But
sort of men are the teachers?" He answered, "Oh, they are very learned
they are all educated at the colleges." I said again, "But are the teachers
erally liked by the poor?" He answered, "Oh, yes, they are learned mer
teach our children many useful things."

When I reached Munich, I engaged, according to my usual custom, a poo
as my guide. I asked him to take me to see some of the schools, where the
dren of *poor* people were educated, and told him, that I did not wish to vi
best, but the worst school in the city. He answered me, "Sir, we have n
schools here; the government has done a great deal for our schools, and th
all very good." I said, "Well, take me to the worst of those you know."
answered again, "I don't know any poor one, but I will take you to th
where my own childen go. I am a poor man, and can not afford to pay any
for the education of my children, and many of the children that you will see
are like my own, sent to the school at the expense of the city."

Accordingly, after passing several very large and handsome schools for pr
instruction, we proceeded to the one, which the children of my poor guide atte
It was a lofty and handsome building, four stories high, and about 60 feet
In the two upper stories, all the teachers, of whom there were ten educate
attached to the institution, resided. On the lower floors, there were ten
rooms, each about 20 feet long, 15 broad, and 14 feet high, and fitted u
parallel rows of desks, maps, drawing-boards, and school-books. Five of
spacious class-rooms were for the boys, and five for the girls. The children
all classified, according to the time of entering the school. All those wh
been less than a year in the school were put in the first class. These chi
after remaining a year or a year and a half in the first class, moved on in
second class, and thence into the higher classes, the same teacher accompa
them through their five changes, and continuing to instruct them, until thei
ing the school. Each school-room was filled with parallel rows of desk
forms; the desk of the teacher stood in front of them all, and the walls
covered with maps, pictures, and blackboards.

The desks, forms, maps, pictures, and apparatus of each school-room
suited to the age, size, or attainments of the children for whom the class
was destined. The children sat during their first year or year and a half's
tion, in the first class-room, during their second year and a half's education
second class-room, and so on.

I went first into the second class-room. The children were so clean an
spectably dressed, that I could not believe they were the children of poor pe
I expressed my doubt to my guide. His answer was, "My children are
sir;" and then turning to the teacher, he requested him to tell me, who we
parents of the children present. The teacher made the children stand
after another, and tell me, who their parents were. From them I learned
two were the sons of counts, one the son of a physician, one of an officer
royal household, one of a porter, and others of mechanics, artizans, and of
ers, who were too poor to pay for their children's education, and whose ch
were clothed and educated at the expense of the town. They all sat at the
desks together. They were all clothed with equal respectability. In their
ners, dress, cleanliness, and appearance, I could discern no striking diffe
My inference from this interesting scene was, that the children of the G
poor must be in a very different state to that of the children of our English
to allow of such an intercourse, and to enable the richer classes to educate
sons at the same desks with the children of the peasants.

After spending some time in the different class-rooms, the quiet and or
which were admirable, I went to the town-hall to see the chief education
thority for the city itself. Outside his door, I found a poor woman waiting
him. I asked her what she wanted. She said, she had a little girl of five

, and that she wanted to persuade the minister to allow her to send her little
er to school a year before the legal age for admission, which in Bavaria, is
npletion of the sixth year. I said to her, "Why are you so anxious to
our child to school so early?" She answered, smiling at my question;
children learn at school so much, which is useful to them in after life, that
her to begin as soon as possible." I thought to myself, this does not look
e people dislike being obliged to educate their children.

d an interview with the head inspector of Bavaria, and asked him, whether
certain, that all the young men below thirty years of age could read and
nd understand arthmetic. He said, "I am certain of more than that; I
that they all know their Scripture History, and that they all know some-
f geography, and of the elements of Natural History."

he time I visited Munich, the Jesuit party was in power. The ministers,
er, showed the greatest willingness to furnish me with all the information I
d, and supplied me with all the statistics and documents I wished to
e.

ited a priest, who directed one of the large educational establishments in the
He told me, that they had established eight normal colleges in Bavaria for
ication of teachers, and that two of these had been specially set apart for
ication of Protestant teachers. He seemed to make very light of all diffi-
arising from religious differences, and spoke of education as of a national
which it was *necessary* to accomplish, by the joint efforts of all religious

said, greatly to the honor of the late king, that, careless as his government
many of the internal wants of the kingdom, and profuse and lavish as his
iture was upon art, he never neglected the education of the people, but that
cted a great advance in this part of the national administration.

Minister of the Interior for Bavaria, supplied me with all the laws and
s relating to the educational institutions of the country, The laws have
nost carefully compiled and codified; and perhaps there is no country in
e, which possesses such an admirable and minutely considered series of
ents on the subject of national education.

Kay makes the following remarks on the social equalization of
public schools. by bringing the children of the rich and poor, of
and peasants under the same roof, and under the influence of the
good teachers.

Bavaria I found the same proofs of the excellence of the primary schools.
mber particularly a visit paid to one school in Munich, which may be fairly
s an example of all; for all the schools in that city are remarkably good.
I entered I did not know any thing about the children, or to what ranks of
they belonged. The appearance of all was so clean, respectable, and
, that I imagined they were all the children of trades-people. I therefore
the teacher to tell me what their parents were. He answered: "The
s you see here are the sons of counts; yonder is the child of a tradesman;
the son of a physician; there, a son of one of the court servants;" and
ontinued to point out others, who were the children of professional men,
kers, tailors, &c. I then said, "Have you any here, whose parents are so
s not to be able to pay any thing for their education, and who are conse-
dependent on the town charity for their instruction?" "Oh! yes," he
iately answered; "the one you see yonder (pointing to a very clean and
able-looking child) is one, and there is another;" and so he continued to
out several others, who were paid for, and clothed, at the expense of the

very fact of the children of such different classes of society being mingled
r in the same schools, will serve to prove to any unprejudiced mind the
nce of the schools themselves, as well as the civilization of the poorer
; for if the schools were not good enough for the children of the rich and
or if the poor children were as rude and unrefined, as the children who
nt our ragged schools in England, we may rest assured, that the richer pa-

rents would not allow their children to attend the same classes with then same association of children of different ranks of society takes place, to greater degree in Switzerland.

I could mention a lady who moves in the first circles of London soci who is rich enough and sufficiently interested in the improvement of her relations to engage private tutors for them, if it were necessary, whose grandchildren I found attending a village school for peasants, situated n Lake of Geneva, where her son, who was till lately a member of the gove of the canton, resided. To prove to me, that it was not carelessness al children, that had led the parents to remain satisfied with the education g the village school, she gave me an introduction to the teacher, and begge visit his classes. I accordingly went, and found there, what you may nearly every village in Germany and Switzerland, an educated and gent man, who appeared qualified to act as private tutor in any gentleman's fan

The statistics, with which the Minister furnished me show, that, in 184 were in the kingdom of Bavaria, for a population little more than double our own metropolis, a much more effective system of national educati much more perfect means for the education of the people, than we have i land and Wales.

In 1846, the population of Bavaria was 4,440,000, and for this there we

8 normal colleges for the education of teachers for the elementary schoo
696 students in the normal colleges, who were being educated as teache
7,353 schools, (many of them containing as many as *ten* class-rooms teachers.)
8,978 classes open on Fridays and Sundays, for young people attendi manufactories, and for men and women desirous of improving thems any particular branch of instruction.
556,239 scholars of both sexes attending the schools ;
565,876 persons of both sexes attending the Sunday and Friday classes.
8,797 teachers, who have the management and direction of the scho classes.
615 industrial schools, where some particular art is taught.
2,517 teachers of the industrial schools.
85,681 persons attending the industrial schools.

These statistics give the following results : that, in 1846, exclusive of th ber of persons attending the Sunday and Friday classes, and the industrial s about 1 person out of every 7 of the population was attending a daily schoo there was 1 normal college for every 555,000 ; 1 school for every 603, teacher for every 508 persons in the kingdom.

DR. GRASER'S COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

IN THE

COMMON SCHOOLS OF BAYREUTH, IN BAVARIA.

. GRASER of Bayreuth, has developed a system of instruction, the
ples of which he claims, are founded in the nature and purposes
ication, and of man as its recipient. This system has been intro-
l into the common schools of his native place, and has attracted
attention from a class of teachers in Germany. Dr. Bache gives
llowing sketch of its general principles, and of its development in
f the common schools of Bayreuth:

er considering the constitution of man, Dr. Graser lays down the
ple, that he is destined to live in accordance with it, and in the pur-
f holiness, (godliness, divinität.) The child must be educated in
nce to this destination. Man requires strength of body, hence
cal education, and of soul (virtue,) hence moral education. His
strength must be rendered available by dexterity, his virtue by
nce. Both must be directed by intelligence, hence intellectual
tion. Besides, he must have a just sense of the harmony in the
ons of life, or a feeling of fitness, or beauty, hence aesthetical edu-
. As a condition of his being, man stands in certain relations
ternal nature, to his fellow men, and to God. Instruction in
e, man, and God, must, therefore, form the materials of his
tion. Nature must be viewed in its productions, the objects of
al history, or its phenomena, the objects of natural philosophy,
ysics. To complete the study of nature, geography, arithmetic,
etry, and its applications, and drawing, must be called in, and
ractical application of the study includes technology and do-
c economy. The study of man requires that of the theory of gym-
s, dietetics, history, and geography. To approach to God, man
know him. The first form of godliness is truth. God's truth, then,
vealed, should be man's study. The second form is justice; juris-
nce in higher education, or the laws of the land in power, should,
fore, also form a part of man's studies, and as accessory subjects,
y and grammar. The third is love, taught through morals or
cal religion. The fourth is beauty, requiring the study of paint-
nusic, poetry, and decorum. Dr. Graser next endeavors to modify
everal subjects of education, according to the special wants of those
are to receive it, which he considers to depend upon their political
ion. Thus, for his country, he divides men into three classes, the
e, or governed; the nobles; and the reigning family, or governors.
first he considers as more concerned with material objects, the
s with the ideal, or spiritual, and hence adopts two divisions of the
cts of study, as calculated for their schools.

In the arrangement of instruction, his principle, that the school
prepare for actual life, is brought into play. He admits no separ
into branches of study, no natural order of succession in the bran
but insists that all instruction shall be grouped according to the w
of some particular mode of life. Taking society as the state of
existence, he begins instruction with the paternal mansion of the
and his family relations, and attaches to these all the elementary k
ledge of morals, manners, speech, number, form, objects, drawing
writing, which would be found necessary in this sphere. He
widens the sphere to include the place of residence, with its commu
extends it to the circle or judicial district, to the province, to the cou
to the assemblage of the German states, the division of the earth
entire earth, the universe.

The application of Graser's principles to a common school wi
best understood by following up the course of instruction as far as i
been developed in one of the schools of Bayreuth.

The *sixth*, or *lowest class*, is instructed in what relates to family life.
exterior of the house. Its interior. Its inhabitants. Their wants.

The classification followed in Würst's reading book will show, generally
way in which these subjects are taught.

1. The paternal mansion, considered as the dwelling place of the family. Houses and
Stones and lime. (Story of an accident from playing with lime.) The walls and the
Doors and windows. (History of the discovery of glass.) Earth, fire, water, and light. Co
son of building materials. Gloom, darkness, light, shadow. Property. Owner. Rec
Goodness. Decorum. Politeness. (Story of the polite and the rude boy.) Pilfering.
Robbery. Robbers. 2. The inmates of the house. Enumeration of them. Exteri
tinctions between the men and animals. Distinctive qualities of the different domest
mals. The poultry. Further distinctions between men and animals. Voice. Spee
characteristic of man. Power of induction. Moral order of the family. (The intra
child.) Uses of the domestic animals, obligations toward them. (Tormentors of an
Noxious domestic animals. Conduct toward them. Flies. Spiders. Review of co
toward animals in general. 3. Wants of the inmates of the house. The dwelling
Furniture and clothing. Arrangements for their preservation. Inviolability of the pr
of children and servants. Activity and offices of parents. Duties of children toward
parents.

This course is commenced between six and seven years of age, and occ
about six months. I shall go into some particulars in regard to parts of th
struction. 1. The dwelling-house. The teacher shows a model of a s
dwelling-house, of which the gable end may be removed, and is a rectan
block, surmounted by a triangle. The teacher takes off the triangle, and c
the number of its sides audibly; this part of the house has how many side
his question. Three. He shows that it has also three corners, or asks
many corners, leaving to the more intelligent pupils to lead the class in th
swer, and when the answer is obtained, causing it to be repeated by all. W
ing the class, if he finds inattention, he addresses the question where it pre
giving the pupils as much as possible to find out, in order to keep up their
tion as long as their physical constitution will permit. A change of subject,
ical exercise, or rest, should be allowed when the attention is exhausted
habit of which may be gradually established by training. This inductive co
combined with repetition, is always employed, and in what follows I shall m
indicate the order of the instruction. The figure in question is three-corn
Interior corners are called angles.* It is a three angled figure, and called
angle. Next, the four-sided figure is similarly treated. Then the triangula
is set upon the rectangle, forming a five-sided figure. This part of the mo
now placed before the children to draw upon the slate, with the following
liminary instruction. Each group of three or four children, or, if conve

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* In German, the space formed by the meeting of two lines viewed from the interi
from the exterior, has different names, and the compounds of these, with the numerals
four, five, &c., constitute the names of the figures, as drey-eck, viër-eck, &c.

hild, is furnished with a rectangle of pasteboard, or thin wood, in which
les are pierced, corresponding to the five angular points of the pentagon to
vn. These are marked on the slate by inserting the points of the pencil
n the holes, and the child is practiced in joining the points by hand. Prac-
this constitutes his first drawing lesson. Returning to the rectangular part
model, the positions of the vertical and horizontal boundary lines are
out, and a plummet and common mason's level are shown, to give a
how these lines are established in practice, and a correct idea of their
ositions. Attention is next called to the horizontal side of the triangular
en to the sloping sides. A comparison of the angles which they form with
izon, and that formed by the horizontal and vertical lines, leads to the dis-
between acute and right angles. The objects of a triangular roof, and
rectangular lower part of the house, are next stated. An obtuse angled
al roof is substituted for the one already mentioned. The form gives an
ion of the obtuse angle, placing it upon the model leads to counting as far
n Dividing the house into stories by lines, to counting to nine. The
n are next led to enumerate the parts of the house as shown in the model,
h the names of which they are of course familiar, as the doors, windows,
he distinction between squares and rectangles is made obvious. The
ogram and rhomb are also here introduced. The distinction between
and straight lines, &c. Different simple drawings of cottages are made.
g is continued to ten. Addition is commenced by referring to the number
s in the windows of the model, covering up those not to be added, and
ing from smaller to larger numbers, within the limits of ten. These are
d to one hundred, stating to the children the mode of formation of com-
umbers, to assist their memory. Subtraction is introduced by reference
ame illustrations. Mental arithmetic alone is practiced. In adding num-
ich exceed ten, the tens are first added, then the units, carrying to the
necessary; thus, in adding twenty-two and thirty-nine together, their
would be, twenty-two is two tens and two ones; thirty-nine, three tens
e ones; two tens and three tens are five tens; two ones and nine ones are
nes, or one ten and one one; five tens and one ten are six tens, and one,
e. Multiplication is begun also by a reference to the window-panes,
fford, usually, many combinations. Division is similarly treated, the
being such as the children would take an interest in solving, and their
e early explained to them, and made the subjects of their exercises. Frac-
ow naturally from division. The foregoing instruction is interspersed with
atters yet to be described.

t, there is no fixed order of exercise, or school plan, according to Graser's
but the teacher is relied upon to advance the different parts of the instruc-
y, according to his observation of the progress of the class.

lements of physics, natural history, technology, and domestic economy, are
roduced, it being understood that the same mixed method of question and
and of direct and inductive teaching, is used throughout. Men did not
live in houses, but once in caves and huts. The inconveniences of such
om cold, damp, &c., are pointed out. The materials required for a house,
, mortar, wood, iron, &c. Most of the children have seen the operation
ing, and can tell the materials required; those who have not observed,
bably not let an opportunity pass afterward of so doing. Whence the
procured, quarries, quarrymen. The hewing of stone. Limestone and
e objects being presented to them. The conversion of the limestone into
The slaking of lime, making of mortar, its hardening, laying the stones.
of the trench for the foundations, &c.

the wood is taken for the subject of a lesson. The distinction of wood
uit-trees and forest trees is shown. Shaping of the wood by sawing.
Planks. Boards. Laths. Trade of house carpenter. Of joiner, &c.
ame way iron is treated of. Bricks and tiles. Glass.

capitulating these matters, or in presenting new ones, the elements of
r are begun. The nouns and adjectives are easily distinguished from the
rts of speech by the induction of the pupils themselves, when directed in
t way.

as incidental matters of instruction, but not as forming its ground work, it appears to me that the foregoing subjects are of value, and that useful h may be gathered from the way of treating them; hence, I am led to remark u certain sources of difficulty in their execution. The instruction may be rende wholly ineffective by the teacher treating the subject in a mechanical way, so what is intended to excite the observing and reflecting faculties, especially former, shall become a mere memory of words. It may be rendered actu mischievous by the teacher inculcating erroneous ideas of natural phenom and natural history. The teacher's guide should be prepared with care, revised by adepts in the sciences, to avoid such mischief, which I have know occur in many cases.*

Elementary ideas of right and wrong, of goodness, of "fitness," ("the bea ful,") are inculcated in the following way: The dwelling being still under dis sion, the attention is called to the parts of the door, its lock, &c. The objec the door and its fastenings. Who may rightfully enter a house. The righ put out those entering wrongfully. A story is told here of a poor child begg for admission to a house during a storm, cold, hungry, and ill clothed. The c is received and supplied. The moral is drawn from the children, and bene lence, love to man, is inculcated. In entering a strange house or room, le must be asked. The contrast of good and bad manners in making or answe the request is brought home to the children. The subject is next followed u supposing an unlawful entry made into the dwelling, and the difference betw theft and burglary, or stealing and robbing, is brought out. The smallest pos theft of any kind, or pilfering, is immoral. A story is told to illustrate the of the pilferer.

Next the inmates of the house and out-houses form subjects of instruction, mode of treating which will easily be conceived by referring again to the gen enumeration of the arrangement of the subjects. Exercises of speech and thou natural history of domestic animals, and much elementary technological infor tion, are thus introduced. Proverbs are committed to memory, inculcating m lessons or duties.

The next head furnishes an opportunity to examine the wants of the inm of the house, the topography of the dwelling and its grounds, as introductor geography, the construction and uses of the furniture in continuation of tech logy, and to introduce the drawing of simple articles of furniture. Speec considered as the means of communicating between the members of a fan Other modes of communicating ideas by signs and gestures are adverted to. sight may be addressed through pictures as substitutes for verbal descript addressed to the ear. Hieroglyphics or signs may be substituted for pictu Trials of these are resorted to, as, for example, the curve of the fore-finger thumb forming a C, may be imitated on the slate, and understood to stand "come here." A number of signs, having reference to letters subsequentl be formed, and to their actual use in the spelling of words, are taught to the c dren, who at first are delighted with these acquisitions, but after a time find accumulation of signs very troublesome. This is supposed to prepare the for a zeal in acquiring writing and reading. To connect the written with spoken language, Dr. Graser goes back to the origin of the former, and imag that the forms of the letters result, in general, from an attempt to imitate position of the lips, or lips and tongue, in sounding the component parts of a w This requires a difficult and in many cases a most fanciful† connection to formed in the mind of the pupil between the sound and its sign. Four diffe

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* To show that this is not imaginary, I may mention that, in a school where the subje the caustic nature of lime, and of its heating during slaking, were under examination, were explained thus: the limestone was turned into lime by heat, in which process i sorbed a great deal of heat, which made it burning, or caustic; when water is thrown u it, the water unites with the lime, and this heat escapes.

† I have called this fanciful, for so it appears to me, but speak in no spirit of disres This method is connected, in Dr. Graser's school, with the instruction of the deaf and d with other children. The maxim prevailing in the principal schools of Germany for instruction of the deaf and dumb is, that they must be restored to society by enabling the understand speech and to speak. Hence the first attempt is to make them understand motions of the organs of speech, and to imitate them, forcing air through them so as to duce the sounds. The perseverance and zeal expended in attempting to carry out this are almost incredible. In some of the institutions for deaf mutes much of the instructio actually communicated through the means of speech.

of lines are ruled by the pupils upon the slates, on which they write; one
t of two parallels for the standard letters; another of three parallels for the
which project above the standard lines, the interval between the upper
eing less than that between the lower; another set, also of three parallels,
letters which extend below, and a fourth for those which extend in both
ons. Words are formed as soon as possible, and of a kind intelligible to
ild, and sentences of the same character. I doubt much if the pupil re-
any real aid from the connection assumed between sounds and signs. The
inate sound of the letters in the German renders the spelling easy, when
e sound and the signs of the letters have been connected in the memory.*
revious practice of drawing has prepared the hand, so that there is a re-
ble facility in requiring the manual part of writing. The selection of intel-
sentences carries out the habit of understanding every thing as it is brought
d. Reading the written hand soon becomes familiar, and the transition to
inted letters is easy. In all this instruction the blackboard is used for
ting the lessons. Elementary principles of grammar are inculcated in con-
with the writing and reading.

e next class, occupying also six months, the instruction is connected with
the community." This includes the political organization of the commu-
ith the reasons for it; the geography of the place; the continuation of the
es of thought and speech; the commencement of Bible history; an exten-
instruction in morals, technology, and natural history; of the elements of
of grammar; of drawing and writing; so at least they would be called in
er schools. The plan of arrangement is as follows:

IN THE COMMUNITY. History of the formation of communities, with their wants and
ons. Original existence of man. Union of several families. Fatal accidents in com-
. Necessity of mutual aid in misfortune. Necessity of a magistracy. Arrangements
ty. Taxes. Laws and punishments. Wants of the community. Roads, bridges,
atchmen. Servants. Council-house. School-house.

REFERENCE TO MAN. The five senses. Their abuse exposes to punishment. In-
on in regard to the organs of sense. Their injury or deficiency. Their preservation
ercise. The mind. Perception not required for thought, or for distinguishing the
m the false, the good from the evil. She soul. Man has reason and will. Stories of
tions. The good is not always rewarded in this world, but there is a God.

LATION OF MAN TO GOD. Attributes of the Deity. God is the creator, the supporter,
ernor of the world, the father of all men, the high and righteous judge, a spirit. Du-
God. Honor, love as of a child, trust, thankfulness, reverence. Constant remem-
of God. Conscience. Stories related. The evil conscience. Conscience makes a
xious and uneasy when he does wrong. The moral to be inculcated is, that man has
him a monitor which warns him against doing evil. Story of a pleasant evening.
s also approval within one's self of good deeds. Necessity of a revelation to man.
from the Scriptures related. The creation. Cain and Abel. The deluge. Those
The prophets. Expectation and coming of the Messiah. The three wise men. The
sus. John. Jesus the teacher, saviour, and founder of the kingdom of godliness.

LATION OF MAN TO NATURE. The native place and its environs. The village as the
g of the community. The cardinal points. Position of the buildings. Streets.
Springs. Stories of the village. Review of the position of the village. Natural his-
Beauties of nature. First walk in the garden. Fruit trees, shrubs, herbs, flowers.
ds, hills, valleys, woods, and forests. Morning ramble in the woods. Morning song.
Stories of cruelty to insects. *Natural philosophy*. Heat. The sun. Sunrise.
Division of time. The calendar. Vapor. Storms. Thunder and lightning. Rules
ection.

LATION OF MAN TO SOCIETY. Age and youth. Infirm persons. The able bodied
sick. Duties toward and protection of the sick. Employments. Laborers and
en. Peacefulness. Willingness in service. Uprighteousness. Respectfulness. Dis-
to work. Poverty and riches. Contentment.

same elements of instruction are, in the next class, grouped about the next
l division, the circle, the course occupying, as before, six months. Begin-
ere, the division restricts some portions of instruction unnecessarily. In
l, however, I was satisfied with the progress of this class. I had no oppor-
of judging of the results of the following division, namely, "life in the pro-
' no class being in that stage of progress.

he next following, or "life in the kingdom," the political circumstances
e too abstruse for the intellectual development of the children, and the
pts at induction in regard to the government failed almost entirely. All

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ave a specimen of writing from one of a class who had been five months under this
tion, remarkable for the correctness of spelling and execution. It was written from
n. The pupil was seven years of age.

the circumstances, except those relating to the army, were out of the pale of t
ordinary experience, and the complex mechanism of government was beyond
power of their reason to grasp. The German language is taught grammatic
in this class, and, besides the geography and natural history of Bavaria, its
tory, the biography of its most distinguished men, arithmetic, mental and wri
geometry, drawing, singing, and morals from the Bible. At this stage of
gress, it is quite apparent that the branches require a different mode of inst
tion, that they must be separated, and the progress of each regulated accor
to the adaptation of the mind of the pupil to its reception, and not accordin
any extraneous theoretical circumstances.

The two highest classes being joined under a teacher who pursued altoge
the old method of instruction, I had no opportunity to put to the test the judgm
formed in the lower class, which I have just expressed. Social or political circ
stances do not afford, I am satisfied, a just method of arranging the details of
struction, though a knowledge of them should doubtless form a part of educa
The reasons why the arrangement of Graser produces satisfactory results in
lower classes are, first, that elementary instruction does not require a system
division of its subjects, in order to apply them to cultivating the intellec
morals, or for communicating knowledge: and second, that the subjects
within the pale of the child's experience, and refer to his every day wants
perceptions. Just the reverse, however, is the case in the higher divisions,
hence a different method becomes absolutely necessary.* Still the leading
of the system, that to develop the intellectual, moral, and physical faculties of
is not sufficient, but that he must be educated in reference to the life in which
is to take a part, strikes with the force of truth, independently of the details w
may be devised to carry it into effect.

The institutions which Dr. Graser considers necessary to give the entire pu
instruction of a nation are:

POPULAR SCHOOLS.	SCHOOLS FOR HIGHER INSTRUCTION.
1. The elementary school.	1. The elementary school.
2. The real school, ("real gymnasium.")	2. The gymnasium.
3. The real institute, ("real university.")	3. The university.

The character of the instruction appropriate to these establishments may,
cording to his views, be thus expressed. In the elementary school, it should
popular and inductive; in the real school, practical and scientific; and in
university, scientific and practical, or applying science to practice.

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* This view is also taken by Dr. Krüger, whose experience and skill as a teacher I
already so often referred to. See his journey through Germany. (Reise durch Deu
land, &c., pp. 132, 133.)

AUSTRIA.

stria has a system* of education which, from the village school to the
rsity, is gratuitously open to all, and which, in all its departments, is
on religion, and governed and molded by the State. Its universality
ured not by direct compulsion, as in Prussia, but by enactments which
a certificate of school attendance and educational proficiency neces-
o exercise a trade, or be employed as a workman,† to engage in the
e of the State in any capacity, or to be married. Besides this, it is made
terest of the wealthy landholders to contribute liberally for the educa-
f their tenants and the poor, by throwing upon them the support of
uper population.

the institutions for education are under the supervision of a Board or
il (the Hof-studien Commission) at Vienna, composed of laymen ap-
d by the crown, and at the head of which a Minister of Public Instruc-
as placed in 1848. It is the duty of this body to investigate all com-
s against these institutions; suggest and prepare plans of improve-
and counsel the crown in all matters referred to them. Under them
raduated system of superintendence, to be exercised jointly, by the
nd spiritual authorities in the various subdivisions of the empire.
ishop and his consistory, jointly with the landestelle, has charge of all
holastic institutions of the diocese; the rural dean, jointly with the krei-
of those of a district; the parochial incumbent, and the civil commis-
those of a parish. This general arrangement has reference to the
lic establishment; but the proper authorities of the Protestant, Greek,
lebrew churches are substituted for those of the Catholic, for all that
ls the members of their several communions.

ere are six classes of schools subjected to the superintendence of the
tion-board; namely, the popular, the gymnasial, the philosophical, the
o-chirurgical, the juridical, and the theological. The four last of these
separately the objects of various special institutions; and, combined
ner, they constitute the four faculties of the universities.

e gymnasium is the school for classical learning, mathematics, and ele-
ry philosophy.

e popular schools comprehend the establishments of various degrees,
ich instruction is imparted of a more practical character, to those whose
n in life does not fit them for the study of the learned languages. The
t of these are the *volks-schulen*, or, as they are often termed, the *trivial*
e *German* schools, established, or intended to be established, in every
ct or parish of town or county, for the primary instruction in religion

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e following account of the educational system of Austria is abridged mainly from Turn-
Austria.

rnbull mentions an instance of a large manufacturer in Bohemia, who was fined for em-
g a workman not provided with the requisite certificates of education.

and morality, reading, writing, and accounts. In the larger places are numerous *upper schools*, *haupt-schulen*, wherein a somewhat more exter education is given, for persons designed for the mechanical arts and o similar pursuits. These have an upper class called Wiederholungs-schu or Repetition Schools, who receive instruction in drawing, elementary ge etry, and geography, and with it is combined a Normal School for teac in the volks-schulen. In the larger towns are also commercial acaden termed *real-schulen*, in which are comprised two divisions of scholars: one general, receiving instruction in accounts, geography, and history; other special, having, in addition thereto, teachers in book-keeping and principles of trade for mercantile pupils, in natural history and rural ec my for those intended for agricultural life, in mathematics, chemistry, principles of art for students in the higher arts, and in various foreign guages, especially English, French, and Italian, for those who may desi receive such instruction. In the *volks-schulen* girls are taught, except in instances, in separate rooms from the boys; and for the superior instruc of females there are distinct establishments corresponding with the *ha schulen* and *real-schulen* of the boys, many of them managed and dire by certain communities of nuns, which are especially preserved for the pose of education. Industrial schools of various kinds, and for both se are also in some parts combined with these more general educational i tutions; but the expenses attending such establishments prevent their b very numerous.

The establishments thus last described constitute the class of *pop* schools. The next above these are the *gymnasial;* of which there are or two, or several, in each district, according to the extent of its populat The pupils of the gymnasium are divided into several classes: the ea ones are taught in religion, moral philosophy, elementary mathematics physics, and Latin philology. To these subjects are added, for the n advanced classes—partly as perfect courses at the gymnasium, and pa as introductory to the higher instruction in the same branches at the lyc or university—general history (and especially that of Austria), classica erature, Greek philology, æsthetics (namely, rhetoric, poetry, and a kn edge of the fine arts), and the history of philosophy. Above the gyn sium are the eight universities of Prague, Vienna, Padua, Pavia, Lemb Gratz, Olmutz, and Innspruck; to which must be added the Hungarian versity at Pesth. These are divided into two orders—those of Prague, enna, Padua, Pavia, and Pesth, are of the first, having chairs for all the faculties of theology, law, medicine, and philosophy; the others hav smaller number—as, for instance, Gratz, which has but three, having no fessorship of medicine, and Lemberg, which has only two. In further dition, according to circumstances and localities, professorships are es lished, either at the gymnasium, the lyceum, or the university, in the Ita and Oriental languages, in theoretical agriculture, astronomy, chemi mechanics, and other branches of practical science.

In most of the provincial capitals, where no university exists (in s towns, for instance, as Linz, Laybach, Klagenfurt, &c.), there is an ins tion, under the name of *Lyceum*, which answers the purpose of a minor versity; wherein public courses of lectures are given in some or all of four faculties, and in other branches of knowledge. The *degree* cannot deed, be taken at the lyceum in any of the faculties; but certificates be there obtained, which are accepted in lieu of those of the universi for a large number of cases where certificates are required, and for you who require them not, the education of the lyceum, extending as it doe the highest Greek and Latin classics, and natural philosophy, answers e purpose of general education. Of these lyceums, there are, in the emp twenty-three under Roman Catholic direction; besides eleven Protest

ran or Calvinist, and one Unitarian. For the instruction of the He-
subjects there are gymnasiums and other schools, wherein the same
are read as in the general establishments of the empire, except only
orks of Jewish are substituted for those of Christian theology. In
l branches of knowledge, the government establishments are very nu-
s: medical and surgical academies, clerical academies, polytechnic
ls, military institutions in all branches, and a college for the Eastern
ages, &c.

popular schools are inspected and directed by the parochial incum-
who, with a view to this duty, is bound to receive instruction, previous
induction to a benefice, in the system of scholastic management, or,
s termed in the language of the edicts, the *science of pædagogy*. He is
ed, at least twice a week, at certain fixed hours, to examine and cate-
the pupils, and to impart to them religious instruction; the parish or
t being obliged to provide him with a carriage for that purpose, when
hools to be visited are distant from his residence. He orders removals
lower to higher classes, and grants those certificates, without which no
can pass from the popular school to the gymnasium. He is bound to
r, periodically, statistical and discriminating returns on the state of the
ls, both to his spiritual superior and to the kreisamt; to urge on pa-
the great importance of education to their offspring; and to supply
to those who cannot afford to purchase them, and clothes (so far as the
fund or private contribution may enable him to do so) to such as, for
of clothing, are prevented attending the schools. Where children of
ent creeds are intermixed in one school, religious instruction and cate-
ion is confined to the last hour of the morning and afternoon attend-
during which hour the non-Romanists are dismissed, to receive instruc-
elsewhere from their respective pastors; but where the number of
omanists is sufficiently great to support a separate school, the minister
t persuasion, whatever it may be, is charged exclusively with the same
as, in the general schools, are imposed on the parish priest. To min-
of all professions an equal recourse is, by the terms of the ordinances,
ed to the aid of the poor fund and of the grants from the kreisamt. If
hools be too distant or too numerous for the proper supervision of the
minister, a separate instructor is named by the bishop, or, if the school
otestant, by the provincial superintendent; and, for the visitors of all
minations, the expense of a carriage is equally borne by the public.
pt in the points above enumerated, the parochial minister has no power
, but only to report; in all those connected with defects or deficiencies
buildings, he, in conjunction with the civil commissary, reports to the
amt, and in those of merely scholastic nature, as well as in the con-
of the teachers, he addresses his remarks to the inspector of the dis-

e teachers at all the popular schools are required to produce testimo-
from the Normal School at which they have been instructed, and re-
their appointment from the diocesan consistory, or from the provincial
of any special religions for which they may be intended, but require
cases the confirmation of the landestelle. They are provided with
ences attached to the schools, together with fixed stipends during good
h and good conduct, and are allowed superannuation pensions, which,
y shall have served for a period of ten years, are extended to their wid-
and to their orphans under fourteen years of age.

ch district has an *aufseher*, or *inspector* (named by the bishop from
g the parochial clergy holding benefices therein), who compiles detailed
ments on every point connected with education, for his spiritual supe-
and for the kreisamt. Once a year he makes a tour of personal inspec-
examines the pupils, distributes rewards to the best scholars, and super-

vises alike both the ministry and the teachers; most especially enforcing t rule, that those books only shall be used, and those instructions only given, which have been commanded by imperial edict. Above these distr inspectors, each diocese has a higher officer, under the name of *oberaufseh* or inspector-general, who is named by the crown, and is in most cases member of the cathedral chapter. His supervision extends not to the *vol schulen* only, but also to the *real* and the *haupt-schulen;* and for these p poses he is the *district-inspector* for the city of his residence, and the *inspe or-general* for the whole diocese. He is the official referee, whose opini the consistory are bound to demand in every exercise of their education functions, and by whom they are in fact principally guided; since eve matter wherein their sentiments may not agree with his, must be referr to the decision of the landestelle. He examines and certifies teachers appointment by the consistory; receives quarterly statements in all deta from his subordinate inspectors, and embodies them into general repor for the landestelle and the crown; finally, as supervisor of spiritual struction, he examines candidates for orders, and novices for monastic vo and grants certain testimonials of proficiency which are indispensable their admission.

To the *episcopal consistories*, headed by the bishop, is committed t general supervision of all the scholastic concerns of the diocese, the reg lations of matters of discipline, the communication of instruction, and t investigation of delinquencies. It is a part of their functions to order t erection of schools, to appoint the teachers, to authorize the payment pensions to teachers in sickness or in age, and to their widows and orpha when entitled to them; but in these points, as in all others which invol any exercise of real authority, patronage, or influence, their acts are inva without the confirmation of the landestelle. For the professors of no Romanist creeds, these respective functions are discharged in their sever gradations by officers of their own persuasion. The Protestant *seniors* a *superintendents* are the district-inspectors and the provincial inspectors-ge eral for their respective communities; and the functions of the dioces consistories are transferred to the central Calvinistic and Lutheran consi ories at Vienna.

The schools of higher degree, the Gymnasium, the Lyceum, the The logical Seminary, and the University, are all, as well as the popular schoo more or less subjected to the supervision of the diocesan and his consistor but these depend more immediately on the educational board at Vienn Over each of them presides a director, who is charged with the general ma agement, in point both of discipline and instruction, acting under the orde of the board, or the edicts of the emperor. The various professors a teachers are all either named or approved by the landestelle, or the educ tional board; the same discriminating precautions being adopted as at t popular schools, for the religious instruction of those who profess no Romish creeds. In every station, and in the various branches of educatio the pupils are subjected to half-yearly examinations by authorized visitor and from the result of these examinations, as well as from the testimonia which each is bound to produce as to moral conduct, and also as to religio knowledge from the minister of his communion, the director forms the r ports which are furnished to the government.

For the erection of *popular* schools, certain rules are laid down which i sure their erection as occasion may require. Although no ordinances com pel education, yet the inducements held out to desire it are so great, that f schools of this description there is a constantly increasing demand, part arising from the people themselves, and partly instigated by the spiritual a civil authorities; and, indeed, so urgent have of late years been applicatio to this effect, that it has become a usual, although not universal practice,

of the parishioners, or the inhabitants of the district petitioning, that
ll bind themselves by voluntary assessement to bear the whole or a
of the attendant expenses. After the locality has been fixed by the
and the kreisamt, it depends on the landestelle to issue the decree
school be built; and, this being done, the law then provides for its
us erection and completion. The lord of the soil is bound to grant
and the materials; the inhabitants of the district to supply the la-
d the patron of the parochial benefice the internal fittings-up; all
ent repairs, as well as the hiring of buildings for temporary accom-
n, being a charge on these three parties jointly.

ithstanding, however, these ample provisions for general education,
e readily conceived, that in a country where certain classes possess
cuniary means and high aristocratic feelings, instruction cannot be
ly confined to public institutions. In Vienna and other cities, many
establishments of a superior order exist, endowed in the manner
ublic schools; and in these, or in the schools of the monasteries be-
ntioned, wherein boarders are permitted to be received, or, finally,
rivate tutors in their own families, a large portion of the higher
eceive their education.

ddition to the above summary of the system of primary schools
tria, we present a few particulars as to the inspection of teach-
schools. The law requires that every district inspector, or over-
ust take care—

at his district is supplied with a sufficient number of school-buildings; and
nd, he is empowered, in conjunction with the village or town magistrates,
school-rate upon the householders of his district.

at all the new school-buildings, which are erected from time to time in his
are built in healthy situations, not near any noisy workshops, or any
r bad smells; that the class-rooms are built according to the plans, which
en prescribed by government; that the class-rooms are well provided
ks, forms, writing-boards, maps, and all necessary school apparatus.

at the school-buildings are kept in good repair, well and frequently white
and well warmed and lighted.

at a good and suitable house is provided for the teachers and their fami-
that it is kept in a good condition and fit for their use.

at the *curé* of each parish regularly inspects his school; that he watches
duct and character of the teacher; that he examines the scholars fre-
and that he aids the teacher by his counsel, advice, and assistance.

at the parishioners send all their children, who are between the ages of
welve, to school regularly, and that they pay the weekly school-fees in a
manner.

at each parochial magistrate is zealous, in enforcing a regular school at-
e, in supporting the teachers, and in protecting them from the least disre-
treatment.

at regular periodical reports of the state and progress of the schools in his
re forwarded to the county educational magistrates; who, in their turn, are
to forward a general report of the progress of education in the whole
to the Minister of Education in Vienna.

ese means the government in Vienna is informed every year of the actual
l progress of education, throughout every parish of their great empire; of
s and difficulties of those districts which require assistance; of the results
ular experiments in particular schools, in the remotest provinces; and of
al number of children in each county, who have not attended the classes
ficient regularity.

n inspector must visit all the primary schools in his district at
nce every year.

his purpose he is required to divide all the schools in his district into two
nd to visit one of these in the latter part of one year, and in the early part
ucceeding year, so as to see each school in spring and winter alternately.

The overseer is required to give public notice some time previously of his tion to visit any school, and of the day upon which he will publicly examin

The law *requires* the parochial magistrates, the religious minister, to who the school belongs, and a committee of the householders of the parish, to b ent at the examination, and impose a penalty on any of those persons, who a himself without satisfactory excuse. The overseer is required to write do names of the absentees, in order that the magistrates may be informed, an impose a legal fine to which their absence renders them liable.

The teacher is required by law to give all his children notice of the d which the examination will take place, and to order them all to attend at a hour. He is also required to bring the book, in which the daily absente marked down, the copy-books and exercises of the scholars, the monthly r of the way, in which each child has attended to his work, an account of the ress the classes have made in the several subjects of instruction, and any n observations he may have made in his note-book for the inspector. These documents are laid before the overseer at the public examination, and are ex by him. The knowledge that this will be done stimulates both schola teachers, as each is as unwilling to be reproved for carelessness or incomp as he is anxious to be praised for industry and skill.

The law next directs each overseer—

1. To examine what character the teacher has borne in his neighborhood he acts toward his scholars, and toward those who live about him; whe teaches skillfully or not; what methods of teaching he pursues; whether h dustrious and zealous in his work, and whether he continues to aim at s provement.

2. To examine the registers of the school, and to observe, how often eac has been absent from the classes; to observe the manners of the children classes and in the play-ground, the manner in which they answer the questi to them, their demeanor to one another and to their teachers, their appe cleanliness, and the state of their health.

3. To observe what interest the parishioners and parents take in the state school, and in the education of their children; how far they assist the tea secure a regular attendance; what excuses they generally make for the occ absences of their children; with what degree of respect they treat the tea and whether they pay the weekly school-pence regularly.

4. To observe the state of the school-buildings, whether they are bui healthy locality, and after a good and reasonable plan; whether the class are dry and light; whether they are furnished with sufficient school-app and whether they are supplied with sufficient quantities of fuel for the dai sumption during winter.

5. Whether the religious ministers of the sect, to which the majority scholars belongs, visits and inspects the school-classes often; whether he tre teachers in a wise and judicious manner; whether he uses his influence the parents to secure a regular attendance at school; and whether he atten diminish any little misunderstandings between the teachers and parishioners, any such arise.

6. Whether the civil magistrates are strict in punishing any infraction school regulations.

The law then proceeds to require, that as soon as the overseer has examin lists, &c., laid before him, he shall commence the examination. It is fo opened by a short prayer and a speech. After this the overseer examines th dren, class after class, beginning with the first.

He first requires the children to read aloud something selected from school-books, and then questions them about the subject matter of the exerc

He selects some particular child to answer each question he asks, and do allow the whole class to shout an answer to it simultaneously, so as to conce idleness and ignorance of some by the knowledge and ability of others.

The overseer then dictates something to the school, and requires them to from his dictation. The scholars are then made to write a copy, and are afte examined in arithmetic and mental calculation.

The overseer is particularly required to observe, during the course of the ex hether there are any scholars, who appear to have been neglected by the , or whether the instruction has been bestowed equally upon all.

law requires the overseer at the end of the examination, to read aloud whole meeting, the names of the twelve scholars, who in his opinion ade the greatest progress in their studies, or who have evidently been the dustrious; to praise them publicly for their industry and ability, and to en- them and all the rest of the scholars to renewed exertion.

overseer is next required to publicly reprove any scholar, who has been very egligent in his studies, or in his attendance, and then to urge the children fresh exertion to prepare for the next public examination.

the examination is concluded, the overseer orders whatever repairs the uilding stand in need of, and whatever books and apparatus are required lass-rooms. He then asks the parochial magistrates and clergy privately, have any fault to find with the teachers, and if they have, he examines cause of complaint, and acts between the parties as impartial judge. On r hand, if the teachers have any cause of complaint against the parochial ies, they state it to the overseer, and he, after examining into the matter, upon it as an arbitrator, and as a protector of the teachers.

e no need to point out how these visits of the representative of the central nents stimulate all the teachers, children, and parishioners. Each is afraid and behindhand in the performance of his duties; and each is desirous to ublic praise for his efforts and success. The teacher is protected from neg- ult, or injudicious interference, while he is at the same time kept under a me check. His close connection with the emissary of the government of ire, gives him a standing among his neighbors, and covers himself and his ith the respect of the people.

law respecting the teacher of a primary school prescribes as :

teacher of a primary school must be a person of good sense, having a good, onunciation, good health, and a sound constitution.

teacher must not merely understand the science of pedagogy, but he must to practice it. In order that he may do this, he must not be satisfied with having obtained his diploma; he must afterward seek to perfect his knowl- the study of able and scientific works upon this science; he must make e down observations on the results of different methods; he must not feel d to learn from other teachers, or even from his own assistants; and he tend to the remarks and advice of the inspectors.

must be careful to speak clearly and loud enough to be heard by all his hen giving instruction.

must be careful not to neglect any of his scholars, by attending too exclu- o the more clever children.

must be particularly careful to make his scholars obedient, orderly, and quiet classes, industrious, modest, clean, and polite.

must never endure a lie, and must prevent tale-telling, teazing, and vexing cholar by another, buying, selling, and exchanging in school, eating during rs of instruction, frequent going out of the class-room, careless sitting pos- nd *concealment of the hands.*

must be most careful to prevent any unnecessary loitering in coming to or in returning home, all rough handling of the school-books, loud and un- shouting and screaming, and mingling of the boys and girls, &c.

must take care that the children are clean; that they come to school with ands and faces, with cut nails, with combed hair, and with tidy clothes.

must warn the children not to drink, or to lie down upon the cold ground, hey are hot.

must warn the children against eating roots or berries, whose properties they know, and against playing near deep water, or in public streets.

inter he must take care that the children shake the snow from their clothes es outside the school door.

must send unhealthy children home again, and prevent them mingling with ers.

He must take care that the school-room is kept sufficiently warm ; that it i aired when the children are out, and that it is well cleaned every second day

In order to make the scholars industrious and obedient, the teacher mu the respect of his scholars ; he can not do this by a sullen, angry countenan by using the ruler, or by making a noise ; but by evincing knowledge of his ness, by command over himself, and by a manly, sensible, and *unchang* behavior.

If the teacher leaves his class-room often in the day, or is inattentive or ca in his manner of imparting instruction, or is lazy, impatient, or irritable, the c quence will be, that his scholars will be disorderly, and will gain little or no from their school attendance.

The teacher must guard against the extremes of both kindness and harsh he must act like an affectionate, but sensible father ; he must make a great di tion between his manner of reproving acts of mere childish carelessness actual sins ; he must never employ severe punishments, as long as he can ho succeed by milder means ; and he must avoid any thing like unfairness i praises and punishments.

The teacher must carefully avoid hastily resorting to the rod ; he must box a child's ears ; or pull or pinch them ; or pull its hair ; or hit him o head, or any tender part ; or use any other instrument of punishment, than or stick ; and that only in cases of great faults. Even in these cases, this k punishment may only be administered after having obtained the consent o overseer, and of the parents of the child, and in their presence.

The teacher must take care to be polite and friendly to the parents of his ars ; if he is obliged to complain to any of them of their children, he must without showing any thing like personal irritation ; he must never send his plaints to them by any of his scholars, or by third persons ; for, by such mistakes are easily made, and unkind feelings are often excited.

If the teacher is obliged to speak severely to any one, he must be careful do so in the presence of his children.

The teacher must not engage in any trade or business ; he must not keep a he must not play music at public festivities, and he must avoid all companie places, which would be likely to throw any suspicion on his character, injure his reputation.

SYSTEM

OF

NORMAL SCHOOLS IN AUSTRIA.

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e school system of Austria, a Normal School is a *pattern* or *model*
which is the primary signification of the word Normal. Of this
schools there is one in the principal town in each province, and
the chief town of each circle. In these Normal Schools the older
ho have passed through the course of instruction in the elementary
erior schools, and show a peculiar desire or fitness for the busi-
teaching, are arranged in a class for special instruction in a course
gogy. The course embraces a review of the studies pursued in
nentary schools, lectures on the principles of education, and the
teaching, and practice as assistants in the lower classes of the
The time occupied by the course of study and practice varies
months to two years—being longer in the provincial head school,
the head school of the circle. There are twenty hours devoted
week to the course, which are distributed as follows:

Pedagogy, ...	3 hours.
Methods of Religious Instruction, ...	2 "
Higher Arithmetic, ...	3 "
Writing and Drawing, ...	3 "
Exercises in Composition, ...	2 "
Geography, ...	1 "
Physical Education, ...	3 "
Vocal and Instrumental Music, ...	3 "

ne is allowed to teach unless he has gone through a course of
School training, either in the head school of the province or the
This system of training teachers was first introduced by order
ia Theresa, in 1771, under the personal supervision of Felbinger,
as invited from Silesia for this purpose. The experiment was
nced in the school connected with the convent of St. Stephen, in
, and the teachers of the city and suburbs were assembled and
ted in the new methods of teaching pursued in Prussia. This
received, in 1772, the privilege of publishing all school books used
ols on the crown lands of Austria, which was, in 1773, extended
e empire. The profits of this monopoly were set apart for the sup-
a Normal teacher in the head school (the best primary superior
of each province.

mode of training teachers does not satisfy the best educators of
. It gives a routine knowledge of methods, but does not secure
astery of principles, or that formation of the pedagogical character,

which a three years' course of instruction and practice in a regularly tuted Teachers' Seminary is so well calculated to give., The gove has been frequently applied to for aid to erect one or more Te Seminaries, on the plan of those in Prussia, but thus far without s

Calinisch, in his statistics of the schools in Germany, in Reden's zine for 1848, thus sums up the professional training of teachers, i tria: "The pedagogical course in the provincial Normal Schools embraces four classes, continues six months, and in those with three three months. In the universities and theological seminaries, th lectures on pedagogy, and the methods of questioning children, two large boarding schools, one in Vienna, and the other at Hernal neighborhood of Vienna, there is a course of special instruction fo young females who are destined for governesses in private famili 1842, an independent school or seminary for teachers was started in burg, with a two years' course, and with eighteen pupils. Ther Normal head school in Prague for teachers of Jewish schools."

The Provincial Normal Head Schools are located as follows:—V Prague, Trieste, Salzburg, Inspruck, Graz, Görz, Klagenfurt, La Linz. Brünn.

POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE

OF

VIENNA.

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whole institution is intended to fulfill a threefold purpose, as a school for
hanic arts, manufactures, and commerce, as a conservatory of arts and
tures, and as an institute for the promotion of national industry. The
ed object is effected by public exhibitions, from time to time, of the pro-
manufactures, under the direction of the institute. For the better exe-
f this object, a spacious building is now erecting on the premises, adapted
ccasional display and permanent deposit of specimens of the mechanic
he collections which form the conservators of arts are also used for in-
in the school, and will be described in connection with it.

vhole institution is under the control of a director, who is responsible to
er authorities of public instruction, and of trade and manufactures. The
is the general superintendent of the business of the institute and of the
on, but does not teach. He regulates the admission of pupils and the dis-
The money concerns are under the charge of a treasurer, who is re-
to the director. The inferior officers are responsible to the same
y. The discipline of the scholastic department is simple but rigid, no
ing allowed to remain connected with it whose deportment is not proper.
rses are gratuitous, except a small entrance fee, and this is considered as
ing prompt removal when the pupil does not perform the duties prescribed
stitution.

lepartment of instruction is composed of three schools, a technical, a com-
and a "real school." The last named is a preparatory school for the
ers, and may be entered as early as thirteen years of age. Its courses
eligious instruction, of German language, elementary mathematics, geog-
istory, natural history, elocution, calligraphy, and drawing, and are obli-
pon the pupils. Italian and French may be studied if the pupil desires
these courses lead in three years to the other departments of the institu-
candidates for admission are required to possess the elementary attain-
ecessary to their successful prosecution. There are five professors and
chers connected with this school, which is superintended by the vice-direc-
e institute. The instructors rank by regulation with those in the gym-
classical schools of the empire. The course of instruction is not as com-
ve as that in the Prussian real schools, but is an adequate preparation for
higher divisions, which supply in part these deficiencies.

echnical and commercial schools furnish special instruction according to
nded pursuits of the pupil, though he may, in fact, select the courses
e wishes to attend, not being limited as to the number or character of the
s. The director advises with the pupil, on admission, as to the studies
propriate to be followed, if his intended calling is fixed, and he is not
to join the classes, the courses of which require preparation, without pre-
a certificate from the school at which he has been instructed, or being
d, to ascertain his proficiency. In regard to other courses, there is no
triction. The age for admission is sixteen years.

instruction is given in the technical school by eight professors and two
s; the professors lecturing, and in some of the courses, interrogating the
Certain lectures are also gone over by the assistants with the classes.
rses which combine practice with teaching will be pointed out in enumer-
e subjects of study. The division of these subjects, and the time devoted
during the week, are as follows:

ERAL CHEMISTRY, applied to the arts, five hours.
CIAL TECHNICAL CHEMISTRY, ten hours. This course gives a particular account
processes of the arts of which the principles were developed in the general lectures.

There is a special laboratory devoted to the course, where, under the superintendence
professor or of his assistants, the pupils go through the processes on a small scale.
who have a particular object in view, as dyeing, bleaching, printing upon stuffs, or th
ufacture of chemical preparations or metallurgy, are directed in their investigatio
cially to the parts of chemistry which they will have to apply. Practice and theory a
combined.

III. PHYSICS, with special reference to its applications, five hours.

IV. ELEMENTARY MATHEMATICS, including arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and m
tion, ten hours. This course is intended for those who have not passed through
school.

V. HIGHER MATHEMATICS, five hours. There is a repetition by an assistant, also
hours.

VI. MECHANICS, including the description and calculation of machines, five hours
subject is founded upon a course of machines, considered as an application of des
geometry and drawing, superintended by an assistant.

VII. PRACTICAL GEOMETRY, including land and topographical surveying, levellin
five hours. The lectures are accompanied by practice in the use of instruments in th

VIII. CIVIL and HYDRAULIC ARCHITECTURE, ten hours. This includes a complete
of engineering, in its various branches. It is accompanied by exercises in drawing.

IX. TECHNOLOGY, or a general discussion of arts and trades, five hours. The
which come under the head of special chemistry are omitted in the lectures of this div

X. The assistant professor of chemistry delivers an extra lecture, daily, on the met
measuring SPECIFIC GRAVITIES, during part of the course.

XI. Elementary DRAWING for those who have not passed through the real scho
hours. There are extra courses in the Latin, Bohemian, and English languages, f
who wish to follow them.

The time devoted to drawing depends upon the student, but it is obvio
his knowledge must be very incomplete, and that he will carry away fro
school but an imperfect record of descriptive geometry and its applications,
he devotes a great deal of time to this branch. In this respect the arrang
of the school is entirely different from that at Berlin, where the drawings a
panying the courses are made as much a matter of regular duty as the atte
upon the lectures themselves. This is certainly the proper plan, and while
peared to me that the time spent in the graphic exercises at Berlin wa
beyond the measure of their importance, I am decidedly of opinion that
attention to this department is essential.

The collections, by the aid of which these courses are carried out, are—
extensive collection of chemical preparations for both special and general c
try. The pupils in special chemistry, as already stated, make preparations
departments of the art which they intend to follow, and some of these a
behind them as specimens of their skill. In the department of the dyer t
quite a large series of specimens collected in this way. The laboratories f
special and general chemistry are admirably adapted to their purpose.*
cabinet of instruments for the course of practical geometry. 3. A consid
collection of physical apparatus. 4. A collection of models of machines,
engineering. 5. A technological cabinet of a most complete character, a
mirably arranged; it contains many of the best specimens of Austrian a
manufactures. All these collections are under the care of the professor in
department they find a place; there being, besides, curators for the imm
charge of them, and for keeping them in repair. The cabinet of physica
ratus, and of models and machinery, were in the main supplied from the
shops of the institution. These shops have long been celebrated for the ast
ical and geodesic instruments furnished from them. They are still ke
though on a reduced scale, their chief object having been accomplished.
were never intended, like those of Berlin, to afford practical instruction
pupils. The institution, indeed, does not recognize the principle that this
done to advantage in the mechanical department. It is certain, as already
that great care is required to render such establishments of any avail beyo
point of giving to the pupil a general readiness with his hands, and tha
when well conducted they are expensive. Success in practical chemistry r
essentially a very considerable knowledge of theory; the processes on a
scale represent, in general, fairly those upon the large, and experiments thu
frequently save the outlay which is required to make them in the large way.

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* The laboratory of the professor of general chemistry, Professor Meissner, is one
best arranged which I saw abroad. The furnace operations, and others likely to
mode the class, are performed behind a screen, with large glass windows, which allow
fect view: the space behind is provided with the means of carrying off the fumes.

e in the laboratory of a school is, besides, very nearly of the kind required
manufactory. These, among other circumstances render the problem in
to successful preparation for the arts depending upon chemistry, different
at relating to the art of the machinist. It is in this department that the
hnic school of Vienna is particularly strong. There can be no doubt that
n manufactures in general have received a great impulse through the me-
f this institution, and particularly of its scholastic department, but while
s yielded to the different courses, the arrangements for teaching chemistry
e considered as having a preference over the others.

lessons in the commercial school embrace the following subjects :—

nmercial correspondence, three hours per week.
e science of trade (Handelswissenschaft,) three hours.
ustrian laws relating to trade and exchange, three hours.
ommercial arithmetic, six hours.
ok-keeping, by single and double entry, four hours.
ccount of the materials of trade. (Waarenkunde,) the sources, uses, properties, kinds,
ions to which they are subject, &c., four hours.
ommercial geography, three hours.
History of commerce, three hours. There are five professors in this school.

a week the professors of the institute meet, under the presidency of the
, to confer on the business of the institution. Saturday is appropriated in
this purpose, and there are no exercises for the students on that day.
the professors is secretary of the board. The professors rank by regula-
h those of the universities.

ectures last from October to August of every year. At the close of them,
who wishes a certificate in any branch, presents himself, and is examined
fessor, in presence of a director and of two members of the imperial com-
of studies. A student who has attended the lectures, and does not wish
amined, may receive a certificate of attendance.

pply the place of a regular division of studies for different callings, one
rlier programmes contained a recommendation of certain courses of study
ratory to particular occupations. The recommendations were the follow-
or tradesmen, the two years of the real school, and one year of the com-
school; or for a more complete education, an additional year, embracing
ses of chemistry, physics, and technology of the technical school. For
rinters in stuffs, bleachers, manufacturers of chemical products, of salt,
ter, for miners, metallurgists, brewers, &c., special chemistry, physics,
nology, with some of the courses of the commercial school. For ma-
hydraulic engineers, mill-wrights, foremen in manufactories, and mining
s—a course of two years was recommended, the first to embrace mathe-
physics, and drawing, and the second, mechanics, machine-drawing, and
gy. As a preparation for agriculturists and foresters—courses of mathe-
physics, practical geometry, chemistry and book-keeping. For miners,
atics, physics, practical geometry, mechanics, drawing, and book-keeping.
veyors, mathematics, physics, practical geometry, drawing, and book-

is still a regular course laid down for architects and civil engineers, the
ry completion of which entitles to a diploma. The first year includes
ry mathematics, technology, and drawing; the second, higher mathe-
physics, and drawing; the third, the applied mathematics, mechanics,
geometry, and drawing; the fourth, architecture, engineering, drawing,
gy, chemistry, and book-keeping.

brary of the institute is appropriated to the several departments, and is
the students, as well as by the professors. Yearly appropriations, besides
ance and diploma fees, are devoted to its increase. The professors have
of recommending such works to be purchased as they may deem of use
departments. An annual is published by the institute, consisting of origi-
selected scientific articles, by the professors, and notices of the institution.

SCHOOLS FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION, IN AUSTRIA, IN 1838.

Countries.	Population in 1838.	Children from 5 to 13 years of age.	Primary Schools.		Repetition Schools.		Sexes attending school.		Total Children at school.	Instructors.			Cost of Schools in Florins.
			No. of Primary Schools.	Children in actual attendance.	No. of Repetition Schools.	Children in actual attendance.	Boys.	Girls.		Religious.	Lay.	Total.	
Lower Austria	1,400,000	157,105	1,101	154,179	1,019	58,200	113,891	98,488	212,379	1,127	2,212	3,339	341,007
Upper Austria	846,000	90,576	626	86,485	606	41,435	65,580	62,340	127,920	718	1,114	1,832	135,871
Bohemia.............	4,178,000	526,569	3,470	494,229	3,481	229,812	376,560	347,481	724,041	1,361	5,781	7,142	475,967
Moravia and Silesia...	2,172,000	287,782	1,886	272,638	1,855	177,239	231,826	218,051	449,877	1,399	3,026	4,425	264,706
Gallicia...............	4,723,000	514,808	1,869	67,278	591	30,022	67,065	30,235	97,300	905	2,037	2,942	124,627
Tyrol................	839,000	106,439	1,618	107,507	1,191	46,673	80,697	73,483	154,180	1,539	2,185	3,724	101,486
Styria	976,000	101,990	624	76,869	567	35,106	61,463	50,512	111,975	647	967	1,614	89,626
Carynthia and Carniola	764,000	85,588	365	27,817	404	16,805	24,435	20,187	44,622	358	518	876	110,545
Illyrian coast.........	476,000	59,250	111	9,917	84	8,316	9,583	8,650	18,233	101	226	327	65,788
Lombardy and Venice	3,664,000	588,665	5,178	258,009	230	3,966	191,167	70,808	261,975	3,697	5,905	9,602	826,800
Transylvania.........	2,026,000	202,600	1,522	51,348	30	720	32,535	19,533	52,068	423	1,507	1,930	60,000
Military Frontier.....	1,198,000	126,674	1,118	64,550	776	20,908	56,308	29,150	85,458	862	1,266	2,128	180,598
Dalmatia	390,000	39,000	58	3,962	"	"	3,355	607	3,962	46	98	144	19,870
Total....	23,652,000	2,886,441	19,536	1,674,788	10,784	664,197	1,814,460	1,024,525	2,838,985	13,183	26,842	40,025	2,795,791

TABLE II.—INSTITUTIONS OF SECONDARY AND SUPERIOR EDUCATION.

	No.	Pro-fessors.	Students.	Outlay.	Bursar-ships.	Endow-ments.
UNIVERSITIES.				florins.		florins.
a	1	71	4,718	165,671	256	21,583
	1	28	876	25,372	47	1,967
ruck	1	24	317	25,053	52	3,593
e	1	63	3,341	66,864	55	3,065
itz	1	26	640	29,525	112	5,600
erg	1	41	1,403	53,593	48	4,480
	1	....	......	....	....	......
	1	60	1,316	80,821	24	4,200
a	1	40	1,260	96,646	....	......
Total (without Hungary)....	9	353	13,871	545,545	594	43,788
LYCEA.						
urg, with Theol., Philos., and Medicine	1	20	212	23,465	7	455
“ “ “ “	1	12	167	12,090	10	362
ch “ “ “ “	1	23	299	22,160	39	2,294
enfurth “ “ “	1	14	171	4,624	26	1,409
enburg “ “ “	1	14	330	8,810	....	......
	5	83	1,179	71,149	82	4,520
ngary, 14*	..	....	......	....	....	......
SEMINARIES FOR DIVINES.						
a (Protestant)	1	5	59	17,007	30	2,400
mptorists (for their order)	1	6	8	....	....	......
ont	1	6	8	....	....	......
ern	1	7	9	2,650	....	......
w nyal	2	8	156	4,193	....	......
erg	1	5	31	3,010	....	......
witz (Greek Church)	1	9	30	4,765	....	......
	1	7	46	15,128	....	......
annstadt (Greek)	1	1	60	180	....	......
ngary, 2†	10	54	409	46,933	30	2,400
EGES OF PHILOSOPHY‡	25	166	3,192	127,089	38	2,140
AL INSTITUTIONS for boys	31	195	3,508	248,151	163	29,097
AL INSTITUTIONS for girls	10	29	429	21,775	21	2,026
ASIA§ (Grammar-Schools) Catholic	116	899	25,458	505,350	446	20,515
ASIA§ (Grammar-Schools) Protestant	14	89	2,451	12,963	13	72
	198	1,378	35,038	915,328	681	53,850
cost of the higher establishments for cation, without including Hungary ..	222	1,868	50,497	1,578,955	1,387	104,558

at Presburg; 2 Raab; 1 Agram, Debreczin, Eperies, Erlau, Grosswardein, Käsmark, au, Oedenburg, Papa, Saros-Patak.

t Kerestur and Torda.

t Krems, Kremsmunster, Görz, Trent, Budweis, Leitomischl, Pilsen, Brünn, Nikolsburg, nyal, Tarnopol, Czernowitz, Zara, Milan, Brescia, Cremona, Mantua, Bergamo, Como, Venice, Verona, Udine, Vicenza.

Hungary, at Stein am Anger and Szeyechin, 2.

ungary has 67 Catholic and 13 Protestant Gymnasia.

e Mining Academy at Schemnitz has 7 Professors, 233 Students: it costs 11,500 florins, as 55 Burserships endowed with 11,000 florins annually.

TABLE III.—ACADEMIES AND BOARDING-SCHOOLS.

	No.	Professors.	Pupils.		Outlay in florins.	Scholars.			
			In the house.	Out of the house.		Receiving instruction gratis in the house.		Receiving stipends out of the house.	
						No.	Charge.	No.	Charge.
For Boys:—							florins.		florins.
For general education.	98	727	6,652	3,153	1,143,286	2,539	524,292	41	5,958
For Theology	51	189	3,233	1,219	634,172	2,317	460,388	335	21,149
For Military Schools..	40	181	3,457	....	613,332	2,725	450,036	....	....
For Girls	101	612	4,125	586	625,286	2,549	355,204	10	1,810
For both..............	17	99	1,537	3,026	295,166	1,445	167,652	2,373	77,331
Total....	307	1,808	19,004	7,984	3,311,842	11,575	1,957,572	2,759	105,748

TABLE VI.—ACADEMIES OF SCIENCE, LITERATURE, AND THE FINE ARTS, IN 1836.

	No of Establishments.	Directing.	Members.				Total.	Pupils.	Expenditure.	Bursarships.	
			Ordinary.	Honorary.	Corresponding.	Contributing.				No.	Endowment.
Academies of Science and Literature	18	12	1,824	520	607	1,488	3,070	276	59,757	21	3,622
Academies of Fine Arts	6	56	127	204	32	60	460	2,798	92,402	40	2,278
Agricultural Colleges and Unions	11	3	4,343	362	1,004	265	5,945	29	21,946	3	1,781
Museums, &c.	10	62	2,573	405	66	2,302	3,222	704	21,440	12	16
Total..........	45	133	8,867	1,491	1,709	4,115	12,697	3,807	195,545	76	7,692

SWITZERLAND.

HE following general outline of the educational institutions of Switzer-
, will be found to contain not only an interesting notice of the Normal
ols of that country, but also valuable hints respecting the compulsory
ndance of children at school, and school inspection, as well as the re-
ns of education to pauperism. It is abridged from a recent work by
ph Kay, published by J. Hatchard and Son, London, 1846, entitled
e Education of the poor in England and Europe."

Perhaps of all countries Switzerland offers the most instructive lesson
y one investigating educational systems and institutions. It is divi-
nto twenty-two independent cantons, each of which manages its own
nal policy after its own peculiar views; so that the educational sys-
of the several cantons differ very materially, whilst the federal gov-
ent which unites all, brings all into intimate connection one with
ner, and facilitates improvement, as the institutions which are found
ork best are gradually adopted by all the different governments.
canton being acquainted with the systems pursued by the others,
raveler is enabled, not only to make his own observations on the
us results, but is benefited also by the conversation of men accus-
d to compare what is being done by their own government with
is being done by others, and to inquire into the means of perfecting
educational systems.

t the advantage to be derived from an investigation of the various
ts made by the different cantons, is still further increased by the fact
eir great difference in religious belief. Thus, the population of the
n of Vaud, for example, is decidedly Presbyterian,—that of Lucerne
nost exclusively Roman Catholic, whilst those of Argovia and Berne
artly Protestant and partly Roman Catholic. Not only, therefore,
the traveler enjoy the advantage of studying the educational sys-
of countries professing different religious creeds, but the still greater
f witnessing the highly satisfactory solution of the various difficulties
ng from differences of religious belief existing under the same gov-
ent.

e great development of primary education in Switzerland, dates
1832 or 1833, immediately after the overthrow of the old aristocrati-
ligarchies. No sooner did the cantonal governments become tho-
hly popular, than the education of the people was commenced on a
d and liberal scale, and from that time to this, each year has witness-
still further progress, until the educational operations of the several
rnments have become by far their most weighty and important du-

hroughout all the cantons, with the exception of Geneva, Vallais, and

three small mountainous cantons on the Lake of Lucerne, where the p
lation is too scanty and too scattered to allow of the erection of n
schools, education is compulsory; that is, all parents are required by
to send their children to school from the age of six to the age of four
and, in several cantons, to the age of sixteen. The schoolmasters in
several communes are furnished with lists of all the children in their
tricts, which are called over every morning on the assembling of sch
the absentees are noted, and also the reasons, if any, for their abse
these lists are regularly examined by the inspectors, who fine the pa
of the absentees for each day of absence.

In some of the manufacturing districts, the children are permitt
leave school and enter the mills at the age of eleven, if they have then
tained from the inspectors a certificate of being able to read and w
but they are obliged to attend a certain number of periodical les
afterward, until they attain the age of fourteen or fifteen. In the ca
of Argovia, however, which is one of the manufacturing districts of S
zerland, the children are not allowed to enter the mills until they at
the age of thirteen, and I was assured by several of the manufacture
this canton, that they did not suffer any inconvenience from this reg
tion, although it had been warmly opposed at first by the commer
men.

It ought to be remembered, that these laws are enforced under
most democratic forms of government.

The people themselves require attendance at the schools, so consc
are they of the necessity of education to the encouragement of tem
ance, prudence, and order.

In the cantons of Berne, Vaud, Argovia, Zurich, Thurgovia, Luce
and Schaffhouse, where this law is put into force most stringently, it
be said with truth, that all the children between the ages of seven
fifteen are receiving a sound and religious education. This is a r
charming result, and one which is destined to rapidly advance Swit
land, within the next eighty years, in the course of a high Christian c
ization. One is astonished and delighted, in walking through the to
of the cantons I have mentioned, to miss those heart-rending scenes t
met with in every English town; I mean the crowds of filthy, half-clo
children, who may be seen in the back streets of any of our towns, gro
ing in the disgusting filth of the undrained pavements, listening to
lascivious songs of the tramping singers, witnessing scenes calculate
demoralize adults, and certain to leave their impress on the suscep
minds of the young, quarreling, swearing, fighting, and in every
emulating the immorality of those who bred them. There is scarce
town in England and Wales whose poorer streets, from eight in the m
ing until ten at night, are not full of these harrowing and disgus
scenes, which thus continually show us the real fountain-head of our
moralized pauperism. In Switzerland nothing of the kind is to be s
The children are as regularly engaged in school, as their parents ar
their daily occupations, and henceforward, instead of the towns cont
ing to be, as in England, and as they have hitherto been in Switzerl
the hot-beds and nurseries of irreligion, immorality, and sedition, they
only afford still more favorable opportunities, than the country, of adv
ing the religious, moral, and social interests of the children of the p
How any one can wonder at the degraded condition of our poor, a
having walked through the back streets of any of our towns, is a thi
never could understand. For even where there are any schools in
town, there are scarcely ever any playgrounds annexed to them; so
in the hours of recreation the poor little children are turned out into
streets, to far more than forget all the moral and religious counsel gi
n the school. It is strange that we do not understand how invalu

efuge is, which a school and playground afford to the children of the however indifferent the education given in the school.

is small country, beautified but impoverished by its Alpine ranges, ining a population* less than that of Middlesex, and less than one- its capital, supports and carries on an educational system greater that which our government maintains for the whole of England and es! Knowing that it is hopeless to attempt to raise the character of ducation of a country without first raising the character and position schoolmaster, Switzerland has established, and at the present mo- supports, thirteen Normal schools for the instruction of the school- ers and schoolmistresses, whilst England and Wales rest satisfied six! Eleven of these schools are permanent, and are held during hole of the year; the remaining two sit only for about three months y, for the purpose of examining monitors recommended by the mas- of the primary schools, and desirous of obtaining diplomas to enable to act as schoolmasters. In the majority of these schools the mem- of the different religious sects are received with a willingness and a Christian charity, which puts to shame our religious intolerance. does this liberality proceed from any carelessness about the religious ation of the people, for no master can obtain, from his canton's gov- ent, a diploma, to enable him to officiate as schoolmaster, without g first obtained from a clergyman of his own church a certificate of l character and of competency to conduct the religious education in chool for which he is destined; but it proceeds rather from a recog- of this great truth, that the cause of religion must be deeply injured eglecting the secular education of the people, and from a Christian ution in all parties to concede somewhat, for the sake of insuring must be the foundation of all social improvement, the advancement intelligence and morality of the people. M. Gauthey, a Presbyte- clergyman, and director of the Normal schools at Lausanne, M. li, director of the Normal school near Constance, the professors of the al school in Argovia, M. Schneider von Langnau, minister of public uction in the canton of Berne, and M. Fellenberg, of Hofwyl, all ed me that they did not find the least inconvenience resulting from nstruction of different sects in the same schools. Those who differ ith from the master of the school are allowed to absent themselves the doctrinal lessons given in the school, and are required to attend of their own clergy for the purpose of receiving from him their doc- l instruction.

ven in Fribourg, a canton governed by Catholic priests, Protestants be found mingled with the Catholics in the schools, and are allowed bsent themselves during the hours of religious lessons; and, in Argo- a canton which has lately so distinguished itself by its opposition to Jesuits of Lucerne, I found that several of the professors in the Nor- school were Catholics, and that the utmost tolerance was manifested l the Catholics attending the cantonal schools.

he Swiss governments perceived, that if the powerful sects in the ral cantons were to refuse education to the Dissenters, only one part e population would be educated. They perceived also, that secular ation was necessary to the progress of religious education, and that could secure neither without liberality; and therefore they resolved all the children should be required to attend school, and that all the ols should be opened to the whole population.

the canton of Neuchâtel, they have no Normal school, but they se their masters from the monitors of the primary schools, who are carefully educated and trained by the masters of the primary schools

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* In 1846 the population of Switzerland was about 2,400,000.

for their future important situations. Notwithstanding their greate
ertions, however, to choose persons qualified for this most important
I was assured by those interested in the progress of education in that
ton, that they found the present system totally inadequate to the pr
tion of efficient masters, and that they felt that they must follow th
ample of the other cantons, and establish a permanent Normal s
In the cantons of Fribourg and Schaffhouse the Normal schools sit
during three months of the year, during which time they give lectu
those desiring to be schoolmasters, and examine the candidates b
granting the diplomas. But so totally inefficient have they found
system, that Fribourg is about to establish a Normal school durin
present year, and Schaffhouse has only been prevented from doing
the want of sufficient funds.

I was assured by the priests in the one canton, and by the Prot
clergy in the other, that they were fully convinced that no efforts on
part could insure good masters, unless they were aided by a suffic
long religious, intellectual, and domestic training, under the eye of
rienced and trustworthy professors.

Four of the Normal schools of Switzerland contain each from ei
five to one hundred pupil-teachers; the rest average from forty to ei

It may seem extraordinary to some that so small a country as Sw
land should require so many schools for teachers, but the explanat
very simple. Switzerland is a poor country, and although it give
schoolmaster a very honorable station in society, and regards him as
in dignity to the priests and clergy, it is not able to pay him very w
that in many cases there is no other inducement to a schoolmaster
main long at his post, than the interest he feels in his profession.
this cause there is always a constant desertion from the ranks going
some parts, and a consequent necessity for the preparation of a suff
number to fill the vacant posts. If the masters were paid better,
zerland would be able to dispense with two or three of its N
schools.

I should like to enter upon a description of the different Normal sc
of Switzerland, were not that rather beside the purpose of this re
but I cannot refrain from recording the unanimous opinion of the S
educators on two points connected with these schools. These ar
necessity of manual labor in connection with the instruction given i
schools, and the time which all are agreed upon as necessary to the
fecting of a schoolmaster's education. On the latter point, all with w
I conversed assured me, that their experience had taught them that
years were absolutely necessary for the education of a master;
wherever less time had been tried, it had always been found insuffic
and that in order that even three years should suffice, it was nece
that the young man entering the Normal school should have comp
his education in the primary schools.

With respect to the necessity of manual labor in a Normal school,
ions were hardly less unanimous. To the Bernese Normal schools, a
as to that at Kruitzlingen, conducted by Vehrli, the successor of P
lozzi and Fellenberg, and to the Normal schools of Lucerne and Sol
lands have been annexed, which are farmed and cultivated by the p
teachers. They are sufficiently extensive, in five of these schools, t
ploy all the young men in the Normal school at least two hours per di
their cultivation. On these lands all the pupil-teachers, accompanie
their professors, and clothed in coarse farmers' frocks, with thick wo
sandals, may be seen toiling most industriously about the middle o
day, cultivating all the vegetables for the use of the household, as we
some for the neighboring markets, and could any one be taken a
them at that period of the day, he would imagine he saw before him

sants at their daily labor, instead of the young aspirants to the much ted profession of schoolmaster.

ides this labor in the fields, the young men are also required to their apartments, to take charge of their own chambers, prepare wn meals, besides keeping all the premises in good repair. Thus of the pupil-teacher in Switzerland, during the time he remains ol, is one of the most laborious nature. He is never allowed to ght of the manner of life of the class from which he was selected, ith which he is afterward required to associate. He is never d to forget that he is a peasant, so that he may not afterward feel gust in mingling with peasants. In this manner, they train their rs in habits of thought and life admirably suited to the laborious ter of the profession for which they are destined, and to the humss who will be their companions in after life. The higher the inn that is given to a pupil-teacher, the more difficult and the more ant is it to cherish his sympathies for the humble and often degrass among whom he will be called to live and exercise his important

ct, as all the Swiss educators said, the great difficulty in educating ier of the poor is to avoid, in advancing his intelligence and elevas religious and moral character, raising his tastes and feelings so bove the class from which he has been selected, and with which alled upon afterward to associate, as teacher, adviser, and friend, ender him disgusted with his humble companions, and with the e duties of his profession. In educating the teachers, therefore, ve the peasant class whom they are intended to instruct, the Swiss s, which I have mentioned, are very careful to continually habitum to the simplicity and laborious character of the peasant's life, so hen they leave the Normal schools, they find that they have d from a situation of humble toil to one of comparative ease. lo not therefore become dissatisfied afterward with their laborious ments, but are accustomed even from their childhood to combine development of the intellect and a great elevation of the character e simplicity and drudgery of a peasant's occupations.

s the Swiss schoolmasters live in their villages as the coadjutors of rgy, associating with the laborers in their homes and at their firewhilst at the same time they exhibit to them the highly beneficial tructive example of Christian-minded, learned and gentle peasants, proofs of the benefits to be derived from possessing a properly edunind.

nnot deny myself the pleasure of giving Vehrli's opinion on this sub-He said, 'Your object in educating a schoolmaster ought to be, to e a teacher of the people, who, whilst he is considerably elevated tal acquirements above those among whom he will be obliged to , shall thoroughly sympathize with them by having been himself omed to hard manual labor. If you take pupil-teachers into your l schools, and content yourselves with merely cultivating their powers, you will find that, however carefully you tend their relinstruction, you have educated men who will soon, despite themfeel a disgust for the population with whom they must associate, the laborious duties which they will have to perform; but if during ole of their residence at the Normal school, you accustom them to nd humble labor, when they leave, they will find themselves in and easier situations than when they were at school, they will thize with their poor associates, and feel contented and satisfied eir position.'

rgovia they have so strongly felt the truth of the above remarks, ey have resolved to adopt M. Vehrli's suggestions, and to annex

lands to their Normal school; and in the canton of Vaud, where no
is required from the pupil-teacher, I was assured that they had co
reason to complain of the dissatisfaction expressed by the teache
their profession after leaving the Normal school. Nor is it only by
of agricultural labor that Vehrli endeavors to prepare his pupils f
honorable but arduous duties of their future lives. Nearly all the d
tic concerns of his household are conducted by the pupil-teachers, a
assistance that is not absolutely necessary is dispensed with.
assured me that by these means the expenses of maintaining his N
school were greatly diminished, as they sent to market all the sur
their agricultural produce, and employed the proceeds in defrayi
ordinary expenditure of the school.

But whilst the Swiss cantons are thus careful to prepare the
teachers for the practical duties of their lives, they do not neglec
intellectual instruction; as they are fully convinced that the instr
given in a village school by an ignorant man must not only be ver
ger in kind, but very unattractive in character. In order to attain
tain standard of instruction in a village school, the education of the
should be very much elevated above it; and in order to make th
prize the village school, it is necessary that they should have a ver
opinion of the character and learning of the teacher.

The education given by these masters in the parochial schools in
1. Religious instruction. 2. Reading. 3. Writing. 4. Linear-dr
5. Orthography and grammar. 6. Arithmetic and book-keeping. 7.
ing. 8. The elements of geography, and particularly of the geog
of Switzerland. 9. The history of Switzerland. 10. The eleme
natural philosophy, with its practical applications. 11. Exercises i
position. 12. Instruction in the rights and duties of a citizen.

In the Catholic cantons, however, the instruction is generally co
to religious lessons, reading, writing, and arithmetic.

No teacher is allowed to undertake the charge of a school, until
obtained from the council of his canton, whose duty it is to examin
didates, a diploma stating his capability of directing the educatio
school. This diploma is only granted after a very severe examin
which the candidate must pass before he can become a schoolm
Besides this, he must have obtained a certificate of character fro
director of the Normal school in which he was educated, and in
cases another from a clergyman of his own sect, stating his capabi
conducting the religious education of a school. This latter po
always strictly inquired into, either by the council of inspection,
examines the candidates, or by a clergyman of the sect of which th
didate is a member. The character and abilities of the teachers a
considered in Switzerland as matters of small concern, but on the c
ry, every precaution is taken to guard against the possibility of a m
low character or poor education obtaining such a post. It is happil
derstood in the Swiss cantons, that such a schoolmaster is much
than none at all. The influence of such an one on the young is de
izing in the extreme, and does infinite mischief, by creating in the
of the children associations connecting the name of school with un
thoughts, and thus often actually engendering a spirit of hostilit
only against education, but also against the holy precepts which
professedly taught at school.

I consider the very backward state of education in some of these
tons, compared to the great progress it has made in others, as a sat
tory proof of the necessity of adopting a centralization system in p
ence to one leaving the direction of education to provincial governm
I know there are many in our own country who blindly cry out ag
centralization, not reflecting that the central government, as bein

t and most powerful body, can most easily collect sufficient statistics e comparative merits of different systems, and on the comparative s of different ways of teaching and managing a school, and that it s a much greater security to the country than the best provincial nments can do,—that what is found to work best shall be speedily uced throughout the country, and that education shall be univerpread, instead of being greatly developed in one part of the country, together neglected in another.

h canton in Switzerland is divided into a certain number of com- or parishes, and each of these communes is required by law to fur- ufficient school-room for the education of its children, and to provide in salary, the minimum of which is fixed by the cantonal govern- and a house for each master it receives from the Normal school of nton. These communal schools are, in the majority of cases, con- by masters chosen from the most numerous religious sect in the une, unless there are sufficient numbers of the different religious to require more than one school, when one school is conducted by er belonging to one sect, and the other by a master chosen from a nt sect. The children of those parents, who differ in religion from ster of the school, are permitted to absent themselves from the doc- lessons, and are required to obtain instruction, in the religious doc- of their own creed, from clergy of their own persuasion.

inspection of the cantonal schools is conducted in the most satis- manner. Each canton has a board of inspectors, or council-gen- instruction, which is presided over by the Minister of Public In- on for the canton, and whose duty it is, to visit all the schools of the , once at least in the year, and to report on them individually to vernment of the canton, as to the state of the schools themselves, he progress of the pupils, as to the character of the instruction given master, and as to the attendance of the children of the commune.

besides the cantonal board of inspectors, there is also in each com- a board of inspectors, who are elected annually from among the and educated men of the commune, and who visit the communal at least once each year, and report to the Minister of Public In- on for the canton, on the individual progress of the children in the nal schools. The head inspector of the canton of Solleure showed nples of the handwriting, composition, accounts, &c., of all the chil- the canton. By these means each schoolmaster is encouraged in rtions, as he feels that the eyes of his canton are upon him, and that egarded as a most important public functionary, to whom is com- a great and momentous trust, for the proper discharge of which it ight his canton should receive constant assurance.

hese means the different communes or parishes are immediately ted in the progress of their schools, whilst the government is insured t the possibility of a school being wholly neglected, as every school of receiving one or two visits from the government inspectors, even arochial authorities should wholly neglect them, or should not pay ufficient attention.

is the true theory of a system of inspection. There ought always system of local inspection, because local authorities are able, when to discover better than any stranger can possibly do, the peculiar and requirements of their localities, as well as the real character r teachers, and because a system of local inspection provides a con- check upon the schoolmaster; but as persons, who have other and g duties upon their hands, and who are deeply engaged in busi- r in agricultural pursuits, are very likely to neglect at times, and altogether, the important duty of attending to the schools of their orhood, and as schools, which receive no surveillance from persons

qualified to judge of their particular merits or demerits, are alway
to degenerate, and are liable to become seriously demoralized; a
moreover, it is deeply important that every government, for the s
social order and also for the sake of the happiness and morality of i
jects, should have every security that the people are really educat
not demoralized by a sinful sham of education, it is necessary t
every well-governed state, where the government takes any inte
the improvement of the people, there should be a central inspection
the schools of the country, which should be supported and direct
the government. If government has not the power of examining
school, it can have no security that the children are not being abs
demoralized, and that the seeds of future rebellion and sedition a
being sown in the village schools. In many of the neglected sch
England and Wales at the present day, this is actually the case, an
because the schoolmasters, in many instances, are never visite
watched by any person capable of judging of the moral condition o
schools.

The development of the people's education in Switzerland and F
is of far too recent a date to allow me to speak of its results. It is
thirteen years that the habits, opinions, taste, and manners of a peop
be changed. A change in a nation's character is not wrought i
generation; so that nothing can be more unfair than the language
by many persons on this subject. If any thing is said of French and
education, the answer is, 'Look at its results.' 'The people of the
countries are the most disaffected and turbulent in Europe.' I r
that nothing can be more unfair than this reasoning. The real de
ment of education dates in both countries from 1833, so that but few
age of thirty in either country can have reaped any advantage f
and of those below thirty, many can not have been able to attend an
school for more than two or three years, and many others not at all,
of those young men, who have enjoyed the advantages of atten
school directed by an able and efficient master, many must have re
as much harm from the evil influence of demoralizing homes, as the
reaped benefit from the ennobling effect of the lessons and example
them by a Christian and noble-minded schoolmaster. It is only wh
corrupting influences of the old, ignorant, and demoralized gener
have passed away, when the parents themselves have begun to es
the advantages to be reaped from education, when the lessons
teachers are backed by the lessons and examples of the parents, th
effects of education will begin to be apparent. This requires mor
one generation, and much more than thirteen years; and it is thi
slowness in the working of an educational system, however perfect,
renders me the more anxious that we should speedily prepare f
coming future.

Such is a short outline of the general character of the education
tems of Switzerland.

At the present time it may be truly said, that in nearly the wh
Switzerland, every boy and girl below the age of seventeen yea
read and write. The education of the girls is perhaps in a more sa
tory condition in the Catholic cantons than in the Protestant. It is
ded to the special care of the nuns, and I can bear testimony to the
patient, and religious spirit in which these excellent women affectio
tend the progress of the young girls. The self-denying life whi
Catholic nuns lead, and the excellent education they receive in the
neries, admirably suit them for the important duties confided t
charge in these cantons. After examining the schools conducted by
of the sisters in Fribourg, the abbess of the nunnery, to which the
who had the direction of the female schools belonged, allowed me, i

vith a very intelligent priest, with whom I had been spending some
o visit the nunnery. We went over it in company with one of the

When I entered, I found myself in the presence of about twenty
nuns, who, under the direction of a very venerable old abbess of
eighty years of age, were seated in the entrance-hall, engaged in
; clothes for the poor.

apartments of the sisters were of the plainest possible description.
were in beautiful order, and perfectly clean; but furnished very
rly, and literally destitute of every thing that was not absolutely
ary. The sisters have no servants and no assistants. They pre-
eir own food, clean their own chambers, take charge by turns of
ing-room, hall, and room of the abbess, and, in fact, perform by
ll the humblest duties of domestic servants. They, at the same
ive a very excellent education to the young persons destined to
e veil, comprising reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography,
ar, and singing. The novitiates are, therefore, in every way ad-
prepared for the duties of instruction, which they undertake after
taken the veil, whilst the humble life to which they are accus-
during the years of their novitiate, and during the rest of their
turn with the other sisters, makes them admirably well qualified
rcourse with the poor, and renders them patient, gentle, and perse-
in their efforts in the schools. They certainly are living examples
lass of teachers a good training is capable of producing.

condition of the peasantry in the Protestant cantons of Berne, Ar-
Vaud, Thurgovia, Neuchatel, Geneva, Basle, and Schaffhouse, and
Catholic cantons of Solleure and Lucerne, is a very happy one.
gars are to be seen in these cantons, and what is still more surpris-
signs of pauperism. Their dress, though homely, is always good,
m patches, and clean. Their cottages, though, from the smoked
ance of the timber, at first sight giving an idea of great poverty,
vertheless very commodious, substantially built, and comfortably
ed, and what is more, they are their own. They are generally
ded by their little gardens, and almost always stand on plots of
hich belong to and are cultivated by the tenants, and no one, who
n the garden-like appearance of the cantons of Berne, Vaud, Sol-
Argovia, Thurgovia, and Zurich, will doubt again the high state of
tion which may be attained by small farmers, proprietors of their
rms. The Swiss proprietor, himself a farmer, is interested in the
his little property, and he is not a man to reject the aid of science,
ut his ears to advice, or his eyes to observation. Their small
uses are the pictures of neatness, and their little estates are tended
e care an Englishman bestows upon his flower-garden. By far
ater part of the population are themselves proprietors, and the
re so subdivided, as to bring them within the reach of the poorest
. This acts as the happiest preventive check on early and improv-
arriages, and as the strongest possible incentive to providence
f-denial. Owing to this cause, the earliest age at which a young
inks of marrying in several cantons is twenty-five, as he spends the
rt of his life, after he has begun to earn any wages, in laying by
ittle capital toward the purchase of a house and piece of land.
he can offer a certain share of the purchase-money, he pays it over
vendor and enters into possession, clearing the rest of his debt by
payments. It is only after he has thus attained the great object
vishes that he marries. Many even of the laborers in the towns
rent their little properties outside. The happy effects of this
are manifest not only in the excellent check it affords to impru-
early marriages and in the happy stimulant to prudence and sobri-

ety, but also and more particularly in the interest it gives the
peasants in the maintenance of social order.

The Swiss have so clearly understood that the real cause of pa
is want of prudence and foresight among the poor, that the peop
selves, in three of the most democratic of the cantons, have not
solved, that all children should be forced to attend school for
number of years, and that the descent of lands should be so arra
to insure a great subdivision and make the separate estates s
numerous; and have not only created, by these means, strong in
to prudence among the poor, by elevating their tastes, by teachi
the great benefits to be derived from temporary self-denial, and
ing out to the saving and self-denying laborer the prospect of bec
proprietor; but they have also enacted laws, which prohibit a
marrying, until he prove to the state that he is able to support
It must be remembered, that these laws are put in force by th
themselves. So clearly is it understood in Switzerland that
cause of pauperism in a well-governed state can only be ignora
improvidence resulting from ignorance, or some misfortune whi
not have been foreseen; and that it is only the pauperism resulti
this latter cause for which a well-organized community ought to
upon to provide."

EDUCATIONAL ESTABLISHMENT

OF

MR. DE FELLENBERG, AT HOFWYL.

HE great educational establishment of Mr. de Fellenberg at Hofwyl,
e canton of Berne, has attracted more attention, and exerted a wider
ence, than any one institution in Europe or America, during the pres-
century. It originated in motives of patriotism and benevolence,
t the year 1805, and was sustained for forty years by personal efforts
pecuniary sacrifices on the part of its founder, which have never been
lled among men of his wealth, and social position. Born to every
ntage of education which wealth and rank could secure, advanced
to positions of trust and influence in public life, enjoying extensive
rtunities of observation by travel in the most refined nations, thrown
e political convulsions of his country and of Europe, from 1790 to
much among the people and their rulers, Fellenberg became con-
d that improvement in *early education* was the only resource for the
anent strength and elevation of the state of his own and other coun-
To this object, at the age of thirty-one, he consecrated himself
is fortune. Being possessed of ample means, he resolved to form
s own estate, and on an independent basis, a model institution, in
it should be proved what education could accomplish for the bene-
humanity. Out of this determination arose the Institution at
yl.

commenced with two or three boys from abroad, with his own chil-
in his own house; and from time to time received others, but never
than two or three new pupils at once, that they might fall insensibly
he habits of the school, without producing any effect upon its general
In 1807, the first building was erected for the "Literary Institu-
and the number of pupils increased to eighty, mostly from patrician
es. During this year he projected an institution for indigent chil-
and employed Vehrli, the son of a schoolmaster of Thurgovia, in the
tion of the plan, after training him in his own family. The farm-
of the establishment was assigned for this school, and here Vehrli
ed the pupils taken from among the poorest families in the neigh-
od. He left the table of Mr. de Fellenberg, and shared their straw
and vegetable diet, became their fellow-laborer on the farm, and
anion in hours of relaxation, as well as their teacher, and thus laid
oundation of the "Agricultural Institution," or "Poor School," in
The principles on which this school was established, were to employ
lture as the means of moral education for the poor, and to make

their labors the means of defraying the expense of their educati
this institution, Vehrli attained that practical knowledge of te
which fitted him for his higher work in the Normal School at I
lingen.

About the same time, a school of "Theoretical and Practical A
ture" for all classes, was formed and provided with professors. T
school several hundred students resorted annually. In the sam
Fellenberg commenced the formation of a Normal School, or se
for teachers, at his own expense, inviting one of the most disting
educators of the day to conduct it. Forty-two teachers, of the ca
Berne, came together the first year and received a course of instruc
the art of teaching. So great was the zeal inspired by the liber
Fellenberg, and the course of instruction, that the teachers were e
to prolong their stay beyond their first intention, and to lodge in t
lack of other accommodations on the premises. Owing to some je
and low party intrigue, the government of Berne interfered with h
of bringing the teachers of the canton annually together for a
course, and henceforth the benefits were open only to teachers fron
cantons, and to such as belonged to the School of Agriculture.
teachers, after one of these annual courses, presented an address t
lenberg, from which the following is an extract. It is addressed t
worthy Father and Friend of the People."

> "When we reflect that without education no true happiness is to be a
> and that this can only be secured by means of well-taught and virtuous
> ers; and when we recollect that you have devoted yourself to the object
> regard to the sacrifice it may require,—we must rejoice that this age is
> with such a friend of his country; and when we remember the kindn
> friendship with which we have been treated at Hofwyl, we are comp
> give you our affection as well as our admiration, and which will not d
> as long as our hearts shall beat, and our children shall learn to say, 'S
> and labored Father Fellenberg.'* We will not enter here into any pa
> statement of our views concerning the course of instruction we have re
> which we shall in due time make known to the public: we will only s
> your own satisfaction, that this course has far exceeded our expectation
> complete adaptation to practical life, by the skill and efforts of your ass
> and by the moral and religious spirit with which the whole has been an
> We have been led to enter with a fervent devotion into a sacred engag
> that we will live and labor in our calling in the spirit which you have ex
> and thus prove to you that your noble sacrifices have not been vain.
> more deeply penetrated than ever before with a sense of the sacredness
> calling. We are resolved to conduct ourselves with prudence and cau
> affection and union, with unyielding and conscientious faithfulness, in t
> charge of our duty, and thus to prove ourselves worthy of your Institutio

In continuation of our brief sketch of Fellenberg's establishm
Hofwyl, we will add that, from 1810 to 1817, it attracted the atten
educators and statesmen in Switzerland and all parts of Europe.
were sent from Russia, Germany, France and England. Depu
from foreign governments visited it, to learn especially the organi
of the School of Agriculture, and the Poor, or Rural School. In 1

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* This title was habitually given to De Fellenberg by the Swiss teachers and youth wh
stated his character, or who had experienced his kindness.

uilding was erected to accommodate the increasing number of the ıltural School, the lower part of which was occupied as a riding- and gymnasium. In 1818 another building became necessary for sidence of the professors, and the reception of the friends of the pu- ınd soon after, a large building, now the principal one of the estab- nt, with its two wings, was erected for the Literary Institution, furnished every accommodation that could be desired for health or vement. In 1823 another building was erected, in the garden of nsion, for a school of poor girls, which was placed under the direc- the oldest daughter of Fellenberg; and in 1827 the Intermediate ctical Institution was established. It is much to be desired that ample of slow and cautious progress might be imitated by those e establishing institutions in our own country, in place of collecting a large mass of discordant materials, without any preparation can render them a solid basis for a well-proportioned or permanent edifice.

Practical Institution, or "Real School," was designed for the chil- the middle classes of Switzerland, and not solely for the same the canton of Berne, aiming thereby to assimilate the youth of ole country into common feelings and principles of patriotism, by ducated together, and on one system. The course of instruction d all the branches which were deemed important in the education h not intended for the professions of law, medicine and theology. pils belonged to families of men of business, mechanics, profes- nen, and persons in public employment, whose means did not allow furnish their children an education of accomplishments, and who wish to have them estranged from the simplicity of the paternal ı. In view of these circumstances, the buildings, the furniture, the ıd the dress of the pupils, were arranged in correspondence to the in these respects of their families at home. In addition to an y scholastic course, the pupils were all employed two hours in man- or on the farm, in a garden plot of their own, in the mechanic's ıd in household offices, such as taking care of rooms, books, and

than one hundred reports, many of them quite voluminous, have ublished in this country and in Europe, respecting the whole, or s of Fellenberg's Establishments at Hofwyl. The most particular , and that in which the spirit of the institutions was considered by ınder to be best exhibited, was given in a series of Letters from , by William C. Woodbridge, in the Annals of Education, pub- n Boston. These letters were republished in London, in 1842, as endix to "*Letters from Hofwyl, by a Parent, on the Educational ions of De Fellenberg*," pp. 372. The preceding sketch of these ons, and the outline of the Normal Course which follows, have been from this volume. The following summary of the Principles of ion, as developed in the experience of Fellenberg, is gathered also from this work, and from a letter of his directed to Lady Byron, w established and supports a *School of Industry* at Earling, after the of the Rural School at Hofwyl.

"The great object of education is to develop all the faculties of our physical, intellectual, and moral, and to endeavor to train and unite th one harmonious system, which shall form the most perfect character o the individual is susceptible; and thus prepare him for every period, an sphere of action to which he may be called. It is only by means of t monious development of every faculty of our nature, in one connected that we can hope to see complete men issue from our institutions—m may become the saviors of their country, and the benefactors of mankin form such characters is more important than to produce mere scholars, er distinguished, and this is the object on which the eye of the educator be fixed, and to which every part of his instruction and discipline sh directed, if he means to fill the exalted office of 'being a fellow-work God.'"

"On the reception of a new pupil, our first object is to obtain an knowledge of his individual character, with all its resources and defects, in aid in its farther development, according to the apparent intention of the To this end, the individual, independent activity of the pupil is of much gre portance than the ordinary, busy officiousness of many who assume the offic ucators and teachers. They too often render the child a mere magazine of edge, collected by means purely mechanical, which furnishes him neither d nor aid in the business of life. The more ill-digested knowledge a man th lects, the more oppressive will be the burden to its possessor, and the more his helplessness. Instead of pursuing this course, we endeavor, by bestow utmost care upon the cultivation of the conscience, the understanding, and th ment, to light up a torch in the mind of every pupil, which shall enable hin serve his own character, and shall set in the clearest light all the exterior which claim his attention.

A great variety of exercises of the body and the senses are employed to our pupils for the fulfilment of their destination. It is by means of such e that every man should acquire a knowledge of his physical strength, and att fidence with regard to those efforts of which he is capable, instead of that foo ness which endangers the existence of many who have not learned to estima own powers correctly.

All the various relations of space should be presented to the eye, to be c and combined in the manner best adapted to form the coup d'œil. Instru design renders us important service in this respect—every one should thus at power of reproducing the forms he has observed, and of delineating the facility, and should learn to discover the beauty of forms, and to distinguis from their contrasts. It is only where the talent is remarkable that the should be made to render the pupil an artist.

The cultivation of the ear by means of vocal and instrumental music is important to complete the development of the human being. The organs of the memory, the understanding, and the taste, should be formed in the sam ner by instruction, and a great variety of exercises in language, vocal mu declamation. The same means should also be employed to cultivate and devotional feelings.

In the study of natural history the power of observation is developed in re to natural objects. In the history of mankind the same faculty is employe the phenomena of human nature and human relations, and the moral taste vated, at the same time the faculty of conceiving with correctness, and of em and combining with readiness, the materials collected by the mind, and es the reasoning faculty, should be brought into exercise, by means of forms an bers, exhibited in their multiplied and varied relations.

The social life of our pupils contributes materially to the formation of thei character. The principles developed in their experience of practical life themselves, which gradually extends with their age and the progress of their serves as the basis of this branch of education. It presents the examples an

necessary for exhibiting and illustrating the great principles of morals. Ac-
g to the example of Divine Providence, we watch over this little world in
our pupils live and act, with an ever vigilant, but often invisible care, and
ntly endeavor to render it more pure and noble.

the same time that the various improvements of science and art are applied to
nefit of our pupils, their sound religious education should be continually kept
w in every branch of study; this is also the object of a distinct series of les-
which generally continue through the whole course of instruction, and whose
ce is aided by the requisite exercises of devotion.

the combination of means I have described, we succeed in directing our pupils
best methods of pursuing their studies independently; we occupy their atten-
ccording to their individual necessities and capacities, with philology, the an-
nd modern languages, the mathematics, and their various modes of applica-
nd a course of historical studies, comprising geography, statistics, and political
ny.

ral Education.—The example of the instructor is all important in moral
ion. The books which are put into the pupils' hands are of great influence.
upil must be constantly surrounded with stimulants to good actions in order to
is habits. A new institution should be begun with so small a number of
that no one of them can escape the observation of the educator and his moral
ce. The general opinion of the pupils is of high importance, and hence
be carefully directed. Intimate intercourse between pupils and their edu-
begets confidence, and is the strongest means of moral education. The edu-
must be able to command himself—his conduct must be firm and just; fre-
reproofs from such are more painful to the pupil than punishment of a
tary sort.

le influences tending directly to lead the pupil astray should be removed from
ool, he must be left to the action of the ordinary circumstances of life, that
racter may be developed accordingly. The pupil should be led as far as pos-
correct his faults by perceiving the consequences of them; the good or bad
of his preceptor and comrades are important means of stimulation. Exclu-
om amusements, public notice of faults, and corporal punishment, are all ad-
e. Solitary confinement is efficacious as a punishment. Rewards and
ion are unnecessary as motives.

gion and morality are too intimately connected to admit of separation in the
inculcating them. The elementary part of such a course is equally applica-
ll sects.

good is to be derived from employing the pupils as judges or juries, or giving
direct share in awarding punishment for offenses. It is apt to elevate the
oo much in his own conceit.

ly life is better adapted, than any artificial state of society within an institu-
develop the moral sentiments and feelings of youth.

llectual Education.—A system of prizes, or emulation, and the fear of pun-
t, do not afford the strongest motives to intellectual exertion. Experience
that places in a class may be dispensed with. It is possible to develop a taste
wledge, a respect and attachment for teachers, and a sense of duty which
e the place of any lower motive in inducing the requisite amount of study.

e higher departments of instruction it is better to confine the task of the
to giving instruction merely, placing the pupil under the charge of a special
or, at times when he is not engaged in the class-room.

the other, and more useful branches of instruction, correct ideas of natural
and phenomena should be communicated to children, and require, first, that
all be duly trained to observation by calling the observing faculties into fre-
exercise. Second, that they shall be made acquainted with the elements of
history, especially in reference to familiar objects. Third, that the most fa-
phenomena of nature, such as thunder and lightning, the rainbow, &c.; and
, the most simple principles of the mechanic arts, trades, &c., should be ex-
to them. Fourth, they should be taught to draw, in connection with the
nstruction. Accuracy of conception is favored by drawing, and it is a power-
to the memory. The most important principles of physiology, and their ap-
n to the preservation of health, should form a part of the instruction.

Physical Education. Pure air, a suitable diet, regular exercise and rep
a proper distribution of time, are the principal means of physical education.
essential that a pupil leave his studies during the time appropriated to rela
that he study during the hours devoted to that purpose. Voluntary exerci
encouraged by providing suitable games, by affording opportunities for ga
and by excursions, and by bathing. Regular gymnastic exercises should b
on as the means of developing the body; a healthy action of the bodily fram
important influence on both mind and morals. Music is to be considered as
of physical education, having powerful moral influences. The succession
labor, musical instruction, or play, should be carefully attended to. The
sleep should be regulated by the age of the pupil.

Experience has taught me that *indolence* in young persons is so directly
to their natural disposition to activity, that unless it is the consequence of
cation, it is almost invariably connected with some constitutional defect.

The great art of education, therefore, consists in knowing how to occu
every moment of life in well-directed and useful activity of the youthful po
order that, so far as possible, nothing evil may find room to develop itself."

Mr. de Fellenberg died in 1846, and his family discontinued the
tional establishments at Hofwyl, in 1848, except "the Poor S
which is now placed under a single teacher, and the pupils are em
in the extensive operations of the farm to acquire a practical knowl
agriculture. But the principles developed by the distinguished
thropist and educator, have become embodied in the educational inst
of his native country and of Europe. This is particularly true of th
aim of all his labors to develop all the faculties of our nature, p
intellectual and moral, and to train and unite them into one harm
system, which shall form the most perfect character of which the i
ual is susceptible, and thus prepare him for every period, and
sphere of action to which he may be called.

OUTLINE

OF THE

NORMAL COURSE OF INSTRUCTION AT HOFWYL.

: Rural or Agricultural School at Hofwyl was designed to be a
ry for teachers, as well as a school for those devoted to labor.
'ellenberg and Vehrli deem it very important for all who are to be
ved in the instruction of common schools to have a thorough ac-
ance with the practical labor of a farm. As an additional provi-
: their support, and as an invigorating exercise, it will be desirable
n (as indeed it probably would be for all literary men) to continue
abors. But a practical acquaintance with the life and habits of a
y of their pupils is the only means of preparing them fully to enter
e views and feelings of those under their care, to understand their
and their difficulties, and prepare them for their duties. It also
es many important illustrations and topics of remark. It enables
o give much valuable information of a practical kind in connection
ie subjects of their studies, and much may be done in this way to
agricultural improvements. It is also an additional means of
g the attachment of the teachers to those to whom it is desirable
bors should be devoted, and inducing them to continue in this em-
nt. So much is this object appreciated in some of the seminaries
ructors in Germany, whose plan and location do not admit of a
; establishment, that a garden and a nursery of fruit-trees are an-
o the seminary, and regular instruction is given in connection with

direct preparation of the teachers for their profession consists,—1.
orough study of the branches to be taught, which they acquire in
u with the other pupils, and on the productive plan. 2. In a series
ns designed especially for them, in which Vehrli directs them as to
thod of communicating instruction. 3. In assuming alternately the
f teachers in this class, under the immediate inspection of Vehrli.
cting alternately as instructor and monitor to the other pupils, and
tendents of their conduct, under the general direction of Vehrli.
ie daily advice and direction they receive from him in the discharge
: duties. 6. In witnessing his own methods of instruction, as he
from class to class to observe their progress. 7. In the discussions
ted with a meeting for familiar conversation. 8. Those who are
d for a more extended course of study are permitted to attend the
of the professors in the Literary Institution; and some are em-
in the instruction or superintendence of the younger pupils in that
Indeed, Fellenberg has found that those who were trained in the

Agricultural Institution were among the most valuable and faithful tors he could obtain; and on this account he deems an establishn this kind an important aid to one of a more scientific or literary cha It is with the aid of assistants thus trained that Vehrli has succee rendering a school, often composed of the worst materials, a model of industry, and improvement, which has excited the admiration of a have visited it.

The following is a sketch of the course of instruction pursued w class of teachers which annually assembled, by invitation and at t pense of Fellenberg, at Hofwyl:

"The first object was to ascertain, by free conversation or exami the intellectual condition of the teachers, and to arrange them in c and provide means of instruction adapted to their wants: they we nected in such a manner that the better informed might assist tho were less familiar with the subject, and that they might enjoy the tages of mutual as well as general instruction.

The day was opened and closed with religious exercises, in whic were led particularly to consider the duties of their office. Eigh were assigned to instruction; the evening was devoted to free co tion on the state of the schools and their wants, and the subjects p ed in the day; and the teachers had the opportunity of asking g questions, or presenting topics for discussion. Daily lessons were in language, arithmetic, natural history, and vocal music; three weekly in religion, and the same number in geometry and drawin two in geography; and two in *anthropology*, or the description human body and mind. Two or three hours daily were specially d to repetitions, or the copying of notes. The mode of instructi adapted to the topic: sometimes it consisted merely in the exhib the subject, or of the methods of instruction; but it was accompa often as possible by questions to the teachers, and by practical i tions, either by forming a class among the teachers, or calling in t pils of the Agricultural School. The object of this course was general views of some important topics; to improve and inform the of the teachers themselves; and especially to give them a complet of the methods of teaching. We add an account of the principal c

The Maternal Language, or Grammar.—The course of instru the mother tongue occupied one hour daily of the course, as bei basis of instruction in all other branches. Clear and precise ideas meaning and connection of words, and of the proper mode of exp our ideas, are not less indispensable to successful study than to th ness of life. But the study of language was also presented as an e means of exciting and developing the powers of the mind; bec should always be connected with the observation of the things to scribed, or reflection on the ideas to be expressed. In short, if p taught, every step in this study is a practical exercise in logic. I tion in the mother tongue ought to commence with exercises in sp the materials for which should be derived from the objects imme surrounding the child, or most familiar to him; and are always con with the exercise of the senses in distinguishing form, color, size, sound, feeling, and taste. It was also urged that the speaking, w and reading of the native language should go on together, in altern ercises, as a part of one course of instruction; and not divided, a often are. A plan of instruction was described extending throu whole period allotted to school education. The subject was divid portions corresponding to our division of etymology and syntax; t lving simply words and their variations, and the second their connec- in sentences. The teachers were advised to present both in a manner that the pupil could not escape with mere mechanical ts; that he should be compelled to exercise thought and judgment in rd to the meaning and variations of individual words and their modes mbination. The last was especially recommended as the best means owing the meaning as well as the use of individual words: in short, nethods advised and adopted present the most striking contrast with mechanical exercises and the parrot-like acquisitions of pupils in mar in English and American schools.

he more important principles were dictated and written down by the hers; and questions were asked and answered in illustration. Writ- xercises on the various points presented, were also prepared and cor- d, as far as the time would allow.

ligious Instruction.—The course of instruction in religion embraced, iblical history of the Old and New Testament; 2. History of the stian religion; 3. Principles and precepts of Christianity; 4. A brief sition of the best manner of giving religious or catechetic instruc- The design of this course was two-fold:—

To give to the teacher himself clear views of the sacred truths and nn duties of religion; to enlighten his mind; to strengthen him in the ute, persevering performance of his duties; to enlarge and ennoble eelings; and to implant in his heart an unchangeable, cheering hope, h should sustain him in the changes and trials incident to his labori- alling.

To render him an able teacher of religion, so far as it falls within phere of the common school; and to prepare him, by precept and nple, to make his pupils acquainted with the truths of the Bible, and luties it imposes, and to educate them as disciples of Christ.

oth these objects were kept in view, and each more or less attended ccording to the nature of the subject and the knowledge of the au- s.

iblical History.—As the history of the Bible was already familiar to audience, this subject was treated principally in reference to the od of teaching. After a general chronological review of the princi- vents of the history, and its connection with that of other nations, the rienced teacher of a common school to whom this part of the course intrusted, examined the various methods of Biblical instruction ted in the canton of Berne. He warned his hearers against many of methods, some of which reduce this part of instruction to a mechan- exercise of memory, that destroys its spirit; while others neglect the t object, and employ it merely as a means of instruction in language. recommended—1. That the teacher should relate each portion of the ry in language as much biblical and child-like as possible, and call the children to repeat the narration.

That he should require them to select the principal and subordinate mstances, and combine them in their regular order and connection.

That he should lead them to draw the conclusions and make the re- ions which the history may suggest, under his direction and with his tance; but that he should carefully guard against the error of at- ting to derive too many lessons of a different nature from a single ry, for this only enfeebles the influence of the great principle involved, distracts the mind and the feelings with too great a variety of sub In order to illustrate more completely the methods proposed, a of children from the Agricultural School was generally brought in, exercised in the manner proposed.

istory of the Christian Religion.—The great objects of this course e, to awaken a deeper and more general interest in the Christian reli-

gion, and to strengthen their faith in its irresistible power, by sh
them how light and truth have ever gained the victory amidst all t
pression and persecution they have endured.

The progress of light was traced; the earnest and useless gropin
truth described, which preceded the coming of the Saviour, and wa
satisfied by his instructions. The political and civil condition of the
at the Christian era, and the influence which Christianity has h
changing or modifying it, by the mutual and undistinguishing be
lence it requires between individuals and nations, and the equal
which it thus establishes, was made the subject of particular atte
But the attention of the pupils was principally directed to the in
condition of the Christian church in the first three centuries, while
mained comparatively pure: they were pointed to the influence of
tian feelings and a Christian life in the family, the community, a
state; to the invincible power of that faith, and that love to the S
and to one another, which triumphed over ridicule and suffering, an
tyrdom itself in its most horrid forms. The errors in principle and
tice of this early period were also exhibited, with their sad consequ
and the effects of the various extremes to which they led—of slavi
mality or lawless licentiousness; of intolerance and of hypocrisy;
perstition and fanaticism; of ecclesiastical despotism, and of anar
were presented in such a light as to point out the dangers to whi
are still exposed. The time did not allow the extension of the co
later periods of history.

Principles and Precepts of Christianity.—The religious instruct
serves, that he endeavored to present this part of his subject in its b
form, and to show his pupils the inexhaustible richness of Divine w
exhibited in the Scriptures, to which reason, when duly enlightene
its proper sphere, will come as a pupil, and not as a teacher. This
lation, he remarked, made in the language of men, should be the r
which the exhibitions of the Deity, in nature, and providence, a
mind of man, must be judged. On the other hand, he presented the
ing doctrines contained in the formularies of the Swiss churches, b
as subordinate to the biblical exhibition of truth with which the t
in Switzerland is chiefly concerned. The first subjects of instr
were the general nature of religion, the peculiar character of Christ
and its adaptation to the nature of man, the admirable form in whic
presented, and the importance of taking the Savior as a model f
methods of religious instruction. The Scriptures were next exami
the sources of religious truth, and the principal contents of the v
books described, with the leading evidences of its historical autho
its inspiration, and of the credibility of the principles it contains.
leading doctrines maintained in the national church were then pres
each accompanied with the evidence and illustrations afforded b
Scriptures, and followed by an exhibition of the duties involved i
founded upon it. At the same time, illustrations were derived fro
ture and from the human heart; and directions were given as to th
mode of teaching these truths to the young.

Methods of Religious Instruction.—The method of giving religi
struction was also taken up in a special manner, at the conclusion
course: the first object was to point out the manner and order in
the various principles and precepts of religion should be presented
young in correspondence with the development of their faculties; a
importance of preparing their minds to receive the truths, by making
familiar with the language, and the objects of intellect and feel
general, instead of calling upon them to pass at once from the ob
tion and the language of the material world, to the elevated truths
ligion expressed in terms entirely new, and which leave so many

peless confusion, if not in absolute ignorance of their real nature.
listinction of essential and non-essential doctrines was adverted to,
eneral directions given as to the methods of narrating and exam-

hropology, or the Study of Man.—This course was intended to give
eral idea of the nature of man, and especially of the construction of
odies, with a view to illustrate at once their wonderful mechanism,
direct to the proper mode of employing and treating their various
s. The teacher adopted as his leading principles, to exclude as
as possible all that has not practical importance, and to employ the
simple terms and illustrations which could be chosen. The first
division of the course was devoted to the structure of the human
it was opened with a brief introduction to natural history, and a
rative view of vegetables and animals, and man, and of the several
of men. The elementary materials of the human frame were then
bed, and the great and wonderful changes they undergo in receiving
inciple of life, and becoming a part of man.

various systems of the human body, the bones, muscles, vessels,
s, and nerves were next described, and illustrated by a human skel-
nd by preparations of animals: the offices of each part were de-
d in connection with its form and situation; thus uniting anatomy
nysiology. At the same time, reference was made to the mode of
ying them; the common accidents to which they were liable, as
ations, fractures, &c., and the mode of guarding against them.
econd portion of the course was devoted to the subject of Hygiene,
etetics; the proper mode of employing and treating the various
s, in order to preserve health and strength. It was opened with
views of the nature and value of health, and the causes which most
ntly undermine it. The first object of attention was the organs of
luction, their important destination, their delicate nature, and the
onsequence of too early excitement or abuse on the rest of the sys-
with the indications of abuse, and the methods of restoration. The
us system, in its connection with the subject, led to the consideration
ritual life, and its connection with the body, through the medium of
erves. The various passions and affections were particularly de-
d, with their influence upon the health; and the rules of education
d from this topic. Sleeping and waking were then treated as phe-
na of the nervous system; and the distinction to be observed be-
children and adults on this subject was pointed out. The import-
of attending to the structure and use of the bed-room and the bed,
ven the position in sleep. was also adverted to.

e organs of sense, especially the eye and the ear, were minutely de-
d, with the diseases to which they are liable from improper use or
ct, or from causes injurious to the brain and nervous system in gen-
The importance of the skin and its functions, and of maintaining
anliness by frequent changes of clothing and bathing; the necessity
ethods of useful exercise; the precautions which ought to be em-
d to secure the purity of the air, especially in schools, and to guard
st diseases of the organs of respiration, were the subjects of partic-
nstruction. The formation and uses of the blood, the influence of
and the circumstances in its condition or preparation which render it
ous, the evil effects of alcoholic drinks, and the most obvious causes
ury to the digestive organs, or of interruption in their functions, were
ward discussed in a practical manner. The course was closed with
e directions as to the treatment of injuries produced by sudden acci-
, falls, wounds, drowning, freezing, fits, &c., during the time which
elapse before medical aid can be procured, or when it is not within
—a species of knowledge for want of which many a life has doubt-

less been lost, and which is peculiarly important to one who is en
with the care of a large number of young persons. Indeed, wha
valuable gift could be made to a collection of American teache
such a course of instruction; a course which every well-informed
cian is capable of giving?

Geography.—The course of instruction in geography was desi
point out the best methods of teaching facts already familiar to th
ence. Two principles were laid down as fundamental:—1. To com
with giving the pupil distinct ideas of hill, valley, plain, stream, a
in his own circle, and the characteristics of his own neighborhoo
thus to become familiar with the elements, and to proceed from
lar to general views. 2. That the geography of their native
should be made familiar to the pupils of the common school, befo
are confused or attracted by the peculiarities and wonders of foreig
tries. A course of instruction was described for the canton of B
conformity with these principles, and the necessary references
the authorities from which the teacher should derive his informatio
a part of the course, each teacher was required to write an accoun
place of his residence; and was taught how he should direct his p
the observations and inquiries necessary for this purpose, and
develop the habits of quick and accurate perception and patient re

History of Switzerland.—It was assumed as a principle, that
should not be taught *as a whole* in common schools; because youn
are incapable of understanding the causes and connection of event
involve the ideas, and plans, and motives of warriors and statesme
the other hand it was deemed of great importance to present the
events of history to the young, in order to impress the moral lesson
they furnish, and especially those which belong to their own
To the teachers, however, it was considered necessary to give a c
view of the history of Switzerland, in order to enable them to sel
explain better its individual portions. It was accordingly narrate
as the time would admit, in several great divisions: the primitive
the Roman period, and the period of transition, introduced the
confederation; the heroic or warlike period, the period of political
and the period of revolution, (since 1798,) embraced the history
confederation. This view of the course will be sufficient to sh
general principles on which the method of instruction in this su
founded.

Agriculture.—A course of lectures on agriculture was given to
sembled teachers by Fellenberg himself. The audience were re
of that wise Omnipotence which presides over the circle of human
ty, and of the manner in which it operates incessantly to prepare
his higher destination, by rendering all his efforts dependent on
rental guidance for their success; and by leading him through
variety of events in the material world, to that higher moral exist
which we are made. The lecturer pointed out the wisdom of
rangement, and the defects which would exist in our education,
without these external means. He stated that he had assumed
part of his task to illustrate, by the evidence of facts, in a rational
of agriculture, that man is called upon to become like God—in gov
himself, and in controlling the material world, for the good of his
men; and that he observed constantly more and more the powerfu
ence of well-conducted plans of agriculture exerted in counteract
spirit of indolence and habits of idleness. The first subject illu
was the power which a knowledge of the great principles of agri
confers over the operations of nature, by giving a suitable direction
cares and labors of its possessor; and the wretched slavery of the ig
to the mere changes of matter, and to those effects of the elements

reater gives us the capacity in some measure to employ for our own
it. He next considered the best mode of rendering agriculture a
s of exciting mental activity in the children and parents of a village,
f forming their character. Many sources of poverty and suffering
vitzerland were pointed out, which arose from the neglect of this
ct, and the intimate connection between the improvement of agri-
re, and the increase of intelligence and comfort of those who are en-
d in it, with the prosperity and the free institutions of the country.
us leading principles of agriculture were then taken up; such as
emoval of all the obstacles to vegetation—stones, weeds, excessive
r, &c.; the rational preparation and use of manure; the proper form
mployment of the plough; and the succession of crops. The influ-
of these principles, and of the knowledge of the elements that com-
the materials employed in cultivating the earth, on the products and
cility of labor, were clearly exhibited, and were illustrated by a ref-
e to the improved fields and increased products of Hofwyl. In
the great object of this course was, not to teach the science, but to
such general views as should lead the teachers to appreciate and in-
te its importance, to observe and reflect on the prevailing evils and
remedies, and to excite their pupils to observation, as a means of
ring their very labors a source of intellectual and moral improvement.
brief course of instruction was also given by Fellenberg, *on the con-*
ion of the canton, and the rights and duties of citizens. It would,
rse, be out of place to enter into the details of the Berne constitu-
but we can not give a correct view of the spirit of this course of in-
tion without describing the peculiar manner in which he introduced it.
observed that the merely material interest of civil and political life
a foundation too sandy and unstable for the life of the family or the
. A constitution truly free, and fitted to promote the higher moral
of our existence, can find no firmer basis, no more noble and appro-
e means, no higher ends, than in the message of 'peace on earth, and
will to men,' which was brought by our Savior. No book of free-
can better satisfy its true friends than the Bible, with its evangelical
lement, if its instructions and its objects are rightly understood.
e I have sought here the sources and objects of a constitution, I have
higher value than ever for the Scriptures. The constitution pre-
the good of all as the great object; and this is the end of the Divine
rnment. It calls upon each citizen to live and die for others—the
t of our Savior's instructions and example. The Creator makes
stinction in the birth and death of men; and the constitution only
ws his example in giving equal rights to all. The Savior teaches
regard our fellow-men as members of the same family; the consti-
n simply enforces and carries out this principle. It acknowledges
'the welfare or misery of a state depends on the moral and intellect-
ultivation of its citizens, and that their sound education is among its
duties, and thus admits the great principle of the Gospel in relation
e affairs of this world.' Such is the spirit which Fellenberg wishes
rvade every course of instruction."

he success of the Normal course of instruction at Hofwyl, in spite of
etty jealousy with which the patriotic and benevolent labors of its
der was followed by the government of Berne, led to the establish-
t of two Normal Schools in that canton, and of similar institutions in
t of the cantons of Switzerland. Fellenberg was elected a member
e Legislative Assembly, on the adoption of the new constitution, in
. On his motion the following article was introduced into the funda-
tal law:

"The welfare or woe of every state depends on the moral wort
citizens. Without the cultivation of the mind and heart, true free
inconceivable, and patriotism is an empty sound. We must labor f
moral elevation, for the highest possible cultivation of the powers we
received from the Creator, if we would partake of the happiness w
free constitution should afford. The zealous promotion of this ob
recommended by the Constituent Assembly to all future legislat
holding a higher place in importance than all other objects."

Although the teachers of the canton were prohibited by a vote
Education Department of the canton from attending his Annual N
Course, a society was formed in 1832, with the name of the "*Ca*
Teachers' Society of Berne." The following account is given b
Woodbridge, in 1834:

BERNE CANTONAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

"This society was formed by the teachers assembled for instruc
Hofwyl in the summer of 1832, and consisted of 154 members, wi
exceptions, teachers of ordinary schools. Fellenberg was chosen
dent; and Vehrli, the excellent teacher of the farm pupils of H
vice-president. Its constitution presents, as the great objects of th
ety, union and co-operation in promoting the education of the peop
elevating the character of the schools. The means proposed wer
communications between its members, consultations concerning t
modes of advancing the cause of schools and improving the condi
teachers, and direct efforts to excite the attention of the people to t
fects of present plans and methods of organizing and instructing th
mon schools of the country.

Among the important topics in the school itself which are propo
the Society of Berne, to be presented in the meetings of its auxili
cieties, the first named is a careful inquiry into the condition of the
of their schools, and the proper means for their moral improvement
this purpose they urge that every effort be made to give the pupi
stant employment, and to guard them against the temptations of idl
to preserve a mild but firm course of discipline; and to promote *fra*
affection among them. They urge, that every branch of instructio
the highest to the lowest, be discussed at these meetings; and tha
should be a steady effort among the teachers to *advance in kno*
and skill. Would that the last object could be impressed up
minds of the multitude of teachers in our country, who wrap them
up in the consciousness of having attained the *ne plus ultra* of sk
knowledge, or lie down in listless apathy, after their daily task i
formed, with no anxiety but to 'get through' the business of to-m
as early as possible.

The second meeting of the Berne Society of Teachers was also h
Hofwyl. It was opened by an interesting address from the preside
of truth and energy, of which we can only give a few opening senten

'Guardians of the spiritual life, the personal wealth, of the child
our people! we have assembled to ratify our bond. We have pl
ourselves that in our schools shall grow up a noble, well-taught g
tion of the people; true to the principles of the Gospel, devoted t
and faithful to men; a people whose characters shall not be unwor
the scenes of grandeur and beauty which the Creator has assign
their native land!'

'In this great object we shall succeed only so far as we follow th
vior's example, and imbibe the fullness of his love to man, and tr
God, in forming the hearts of those who are committed to us, in exte
the influence of the school to every household, and in warming the l

ents as well as children. God will reward such labors, even if they
t rewarded on earth. The God who feeds the ravens and clothes
ies, will never forsake the faithful guardians of *his* children.'

ong the evils suggested at this meeting of the society, as requiring
edy, were some familiar to our own schools:—the want of faithful
ion, for which responsible and *paid* officers were considered the
emedy; neglect and difficulties in obtaining suitable teachers; im-
t school-books and means of instruction; the want of a periodical
chers; the unhappy difficulties arising from the dependence of the
r on the caprice or convenience of individuals for his scanty pay,
aims of parental dictation often founded upon it.

r the meeting was closed the band of music of the farm pupils of
yl called the assembly to a repast prepared for 360 persons by the
founder of Hofwyl. It was opened by him with prayer, acknow-
g the favor of God to their association, and intreating his blessing
their future efforts. A scene of social enjoyment and familiar inter-
then followed, suited to cheer the hearts of these fellow-laborers in
luous and too often thankless office. Occasional songs, of that ele-
and heart-stirring character which we have formerly described.
sung by the farm pupils, and united in by the chorus of teachers.
anslate one sentiment given by a teacher, as a specimen of those
l on this occasion:

ere is *one means* of making the happiness, and the delight, which
el to-day, *universal!* There is one *unfailing means* to convert
families into families of joy—to dry up the sources of poverty and
—and to stem the torrent of overwhelming vice—to secure our
es, and those of our children, against all the power of treachery,—
rt, to secure the purity and the happiness of the people. And this
ng means is, CHRISTIAN RATIONAL EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE, and
ally of the poor. *To all, then, who understand this mighty cry, and*
eir hands to the holy work, LONG LIFE! HEALTH *to all the friends*
romoters of rational education of the people, and the poor—far and
LONG LIFE TO THEM!'

h animating sentiments were followed and impressed by some of
ble 'männenchēren,' or hymns for male voices, which the Swiss
furnishes to cherish social, and benevolent, and patriotic, and devo-
feeling, in place of the bacchanalian and amatory songs which so
disgrace our social meetings.

ring the summer of 1833, a course of instruction was given to teach-
der the immediate direction of Fellenberg. It was closed by an ex-
tion, at which a considerable number of persons were present; and
antonal Society of Teachers held its third meeting immediately
It was attended by 200 teachers and friends of education, or *school-*
s they are all styled in simple German, many of whom were new
ers.

uld that we could witness such a movement in any considerable
n of our own country. Could we see some individual who had the
o invite, and the influence necessary to collect such a body of teach-
listen to instruction, and consult for the good of their schools, for
months, in any State in the Union, we should expect more benefit
cause of education than from any amount of school funds; for, im-
t as they are, under proper regulation, they can never supply the
of an intelligent and well-trained body of teachers.

ce the above letter was written, State, County and Town Associa-
of Teachers have been formed; Teachers' Institutes have been
and Normal courses of instruction and Normal Schools, established.

NORMAL SCHOOL

AT

KRUITZLINGEN IN THE CANTON OF THURGOVIA.

HE Normal School at Kruitzlingen, in the canton of Thurgovia, is
r the direction of Vehrli, who for several years had the charge of
school in Fellenberg's establishment at Hofwyl. Under Vehrli's
agement, this Normal School has attracted much attention, not only
witzerland, but in France, Germany, and England. The Training
ol at Battersea, near London, was modeled after this. The follow-
ccount of a visit to Kruitzlingen is taken from Dr. Kay's "*Report on*
'raining School at Battersea," in 1841.

e normal school at Kruitzlingen is in the summer palace of the former
of the convent of that name, on the shore of the Lake of Constance, about
nile from the gate of the city. The pupils are sent thither from the several
nunes of the canton, to be trained three years by Vehrli, before they take
ge of the communal schools. Their expenses are borne in part by the com-
, and partly by the council of the canton. We found ninety young men,
rently from eighteen to twenty-four or twenty-six years of age, in the
l. Vehrli welcomed us with frankness and simplicity, which at once won
onfidence. We joined him at his frugal meal. He pointed to the viands,
n were coarse, and said,—"I am a peasant's son. I wish to be no other
I am, the teacher of the sons of the peasantry. You are welcome to my
: it is coarse and homely, but it is offered cordially."

e sat down with him. "These potatoes," he said, "are our own. We
hem from the earth, and therefore we need no dainties, for our appetite is
d by labor, and the fruit of our toil is always savory." This introduced
bject of industry. He told us all the pupils of the normal school labored
some hours in a garden of several acres attached to the house, and that
performed all the domestic duty of the household. When we walked out
Vehrli, we found them in the garden digging, and carrying on other gar-
perations, with great assiduity. Others were sawing wood into logs, and
ping it into billets in the court-yard. Some brought in sacks of potatoes
eir backs, or baskets of recently gathered vegetables. Others labored in
omestic duties of the household.

er a while the bell rang, and immediately their out-door labors terminated,
hey returned in an orderly manner, with all their implements, to the court-
where having deposited them, thrown off their frocks, and washed, they
embled in their respective class-rooms.

e soon followed them. Here we listened to lessons in mathematics, prov-
at they were well-grounded in the elementary parts of that science. We
hem drawing from models with considerable skill and precision, and heard
instructed in the laws of perspective. We listened to a lecture on the
of the canton, and to instruction in the geography of Europe. We were
ned that their instruction extended to the language of the canton, its con-
ion and grammar, and especially to the history of Switzerland; arithme-
nensuration; such a knowledge of natural philosophy and mechanics as
enable them to explain the chief phenomena of nature and the mechani-
orces; some acquaintance with astronomy. They had continual lessons
lagogy, or the theory of the art of teaching, which they practiced in the
boring village school. We were assured that their instruction in the Holy
tures, and other religious knowledge, was a constant subject of solicitude.
e following extract from Vehrli's address at the first examination of the
, in 1837, will best explain the spirit that governs the seminary, and the

attention paid there to what we believe has been too often neglected i country—the education of the heart and feelings, as distinct from the cu tion of the intellect. It may appear strange to English habits to ass prominent a place in an educational institution to the following points, b indication here given of the superior care bestowed in the formation c character, to what is given to the acquisition of knowledge, forms in our the chief charm and merit in this and several other Swiss seminaries, what we have labored to impress on the institution we have founded. To who can enter into its spirit, the following extract will not appear tinc with too sanguine views:—

"The course of life in this seminary is three-fold.

"1st.—Life in the home circle, or family life.

"2nd.—Life in the school-room.

"3rd.—Life beyond the walls in the cultivation of the soil.

"I place the family life first, for here the truest education is imparted; the future teacher can best receive that cultivation of the character and fe which will fit him to direct those, who are entrusted to his care, in the w piety and truth.

"A well-arranged family circle is the place where each member, by pa pating in the others' joys and sorrows, pleasures and misfortunes, by teac advice, consolation, and example, is inspired with sentiments of single-mi ness, of charity, of mutual confidence, of noble thoughts, of high feeling of virtue.

"In such a circle can a true religious sense take the firmest and the de root. Here it is that the principles of Christian feeling can best be laid, opportunity is continually given for the exercise of affection and charity, are the first virtues that should distinguish a teacher's mind. Here it i kindness and earnestness can most surely form the young members to be and intelligent men, and that each is most willing to learn and receive a press from his fellow. He who is brought up in such a circle, who thus r nizes all his fellow-men as brothers, serves them with willingness whene can, treats all his race as one family, loves them, and God their father all, how richly does such a one scatter blessings around! What eames does he show in all his doings and conduct, what devotion especially do display in the business of a teacher! How differently from him does that ter enter and leave his school, whose feelings are dead to a sense of piety whose heart never beats in unison with the joys of family life.

"Where is such a teacher as I have described most pleasantly occu In his school amongst his children, with them in the house of God or i family circle, and wherever he can be giving or receiving instruction. A man has expressed, perhaps too strongly, 'I never wish to see a teache can not sing.' With more reason I would maintain, that a teacher to wh sense of the pleasures of a well-arranged family is wanting, and who fa recognize in it a well-grounded religious influence, should never enter a sc room."

As we returned from the garden with the pupils on the evening of the day, we stood for a few minutes with Vehrli in the court-yard by the sh the lake. The pupils had ascended into the class-rooms, and the evening tranquil and warm, the windows were thrown up, and we shortly afte heard them sing in excellent harmony. As soon as this song had cease sent a message to request another, with which we had become familiar i visits to the Swiss schools; and thus, in succession, we called for song song of Nageli, imagining that we were only directing them at their usual of instruction in vocal music. There was a great charm in this simpl excellent harmony. When we had listened nearly an hour, Vehrli invit to ascend into the room where the pupils were assembled. We followed and on entering the apartment, great was our surprise to discover the school, during the period we had listened, had been cheering with songs evening employment of peeling potatoes, and cutting the stalks from the vegetables and beans which they had gathered in the garden. As we there they renewed their choruses till prayers were announced. Supper been previously taken. After prayers, Vehrli, walking about the apartm conversed with them familiarly on the occurrences of the day, mingling his conversation such friendly admonition as sprang from the incidents, and then lifting his hands he recommended them to the protection of heaven, and dismissed them to rest.

We spent two days with great interest in this establishment. Vehrli had ever on his lips:—"We are peasant's sons. We would not be ignorant of our duties, but God forbid that knowledge should make us despise the simplicity of our lives. The earth is our mother, and we gather our food from her breast, but while we peasants labor for our daily food, we may learn many lessons from our mother earth. There is no knowledge in books like an immediate converse with nature, and those that dig the soil have nearest communion with her. Believe me, or believe me not, this is the thought that can make a peasant's life sweet, and his toil a luxury. I know it, for see my hands are horny with toil. The lot of men is very equal, and wisdom consists in the discovery of the truth that what is *without* is not the source of sorrow, but that which is within. A peasant may be happier than a prince if his conscience be pure before God, and he learn not only contentment, but joy, in the life of labor which is to prepare him for the life of heaven."

This was the theme always on Vehrli's lips. Expressed with more or less perspicuity, his main thought seemed to be that poverty, rightly understood, was no misfortune. He regarded it as a sphere of human exertion and human trial, preparatory to the change of existence, but offering its own sources of enjoyment as abundantly as any other. "We are all equal," he said, "before God; why should the son of a peasant envy a prince, or the lily an oak; are they not both God's creatures?"

We were greatly charmed in this school by the union of comparatively high intellectual attainments among the scholars, with the utmost simplicity of life, and cheerfulness in the humblest menial labor. Their food was of the coarsest character, consisting chiefly of vegetables, soups, and very brown bread. They rose between four and five, took three meals in the day, the last about six, and retired to rest at nine. They seemed happy in their lot.

Some of the other normal schools of Switzerland are remarkable for the same simplicity in their domestic arrangements, though the students exceed in their intellectual attainments all notions prevalent in England of what should be taught in such schools. Thus in the normal school of the canton of Berne the pupils worked in the fields during eight hours of the day, and spent the rest in intellectual labor. They were clad in the coarsest dresses of the peasantry, wore wooden shoes, and were without stockings. Their intellectual attainments, however, would have enabled them to put to shame the masters of most of our best elementary schools.

Such men, we felt assured, would go forth cheerfully to their humble village homes to spread the doctrine which Vehrli taught of peace and contentment in virtuous exertion; and men similarly trained appeared to us best fitted for the labor of reclaiming the pauper youth of England to the virtues, and restoring them to the happiness, of her best instructed peasantry.

A brother of Dr. Kay, in his "Education of the Poor in England and Europe," thus speaks of Vehrli:

"I saw Vehrli twice. The first time I found him clad in a plain coarse tweed vest, at work upon his fields; and on my second visit, he was busily engaged with his boys in repairing the plain wooden furniture of his house, and the handles, &c., of his farming tools. He said to me, 'You must not expect to find any grandeur in our house; my boys are all to be engaged among our peasants, and I teach them to sympathize with those with whom they must associate hereafter, by accustoming them and myself to simple peasants' lives.' On my first visit I dined with him. The viands were of the plainest possible kind, but Vehrli reminded me that the laborer's fare was no better, and that therefore the laborer's companion and teacher ought to be satisfied. The result of this simple life is, that while in other parts of Switzerland, schoolmasters, who have been admirably instructed at Normal schools, but who have never had the advantage of the excellent discipline of the habits which Vehrli's pupils

receive, often become discontented with the drudgery of a schoolma
life, the young men, who have left Vehrli's school, are found to pers
with cheerfulness and Christian enthusiasm in the work of instructio
social reformation.

Throughout Switzerland, Vehrli's school is looked on as the pa
and in all the other Normal Schools they are gradually adopting his
relative to the education of the teachers.

I have thus particularly noticed the necessity of a great simplic
the daily life of a pupil-teacher, as I fear this important part of a s
master's training is almost entirely neglected in several of the few N
schools we at present possess. We seem to imagine that it is a per
easy thing for a man, who has acquired habits of life fitting him f
higher circles of society, to associate with the poor, without any pre
training. No mistake can be more fatal to the progress of the rel
education of the poor. An instructed man, accustomed for several
to the society of intellectual professors and companions, without h
any thing to remind him of, still less to habituate him to communic
with, the humble class among whom he is afterward to live, mus
considerable reluctance, if not decided disgust, when he finds h
called on to associate with the simple, rude, and uneducated poor.
enable him to do this, requires as careful a training as to enable h
teach; and although men are found, whose sense of duty and
Christian philanthropy triumph over the defects of their education, y
the majority of cases, the dissimilarity of tastes between the teache
his associates, must at least curtail his power of doing good, even
does not actually cause him to neglect altogether the principal of h
ties, from that natural repugnance which he cannot surmount. To
the poor effectively, we must choose the teachers from among thems
and during their education we must continually accustom them
humble character of their former lives, as well as to that of their
associates. The Roman Catholic Church has always clearly unde
this truth. She has perceived from the first, with that sagacity
has marked all her worldly policy, that to obtain men who would
understand and sympathize with the poor, and who would feel no d
for the greatest duty of a priest's life, the visitation of the meanest h
she must take her teachers from the poor themselves, and keep their
continually habituated to a toilsome and humble life, whilst receivin
cation fitting them to be the religious teachers of the people. The g
part, therefore, of her priests are chosen from the poorer classes.
poor know that these priests can understand their necessities, can s
thize with their sufferings, and can visit their simple firesides w
disgust. Whilst, therefore, the Roman Catholic peasant respec
priest for the sacred character of the office he fills and for the edu
he has received, there is none of that painful sense of separation be
them, which exists, where the peasant feels that his religious mi
belongs to another class and can never perfectly comprehend the
tion, the wants, and the troubles of the poor. Still less does such
gious minister feel any difficulty in his communications with the
He visits the meanest hovel without disgust, he associates wi
laborer without any danger of exhibiting an insolent air of worldly
riority, and knowing what a laborer's feelings are, he communicate
him without embarrassment, without reserve, and above all, w
superciliousness.

In the Catholic cantons of Switzerland the priest is not only the
ual adviser, but he is also the friend and companion of the labore
that too, naturally, without any difficulty to himself, and with infinit
vantage to the poor. An Englishman would scarcely believe me, w

to describe how the priests, in the Catholic cantons, may be seen associating with the peasants.

In this country, where the clergyman is so far separated from the poor man by his station in society, his associations, habits, and education, it becomes doubly important that the schoolmaster of the Church should be a connecting link between the clergyman and his flock. He ought to be the adjutant of the clergyman, capable by his education to be indeed his assistant, and strictly united by his habits to the poor, among whom he ought with cheerfulness to labor.

Deeply grieved am I, then, to see that in some of our Normal schools we have not only abandoned the idea of labor being a necessary part of the discipline of a Normal school, but that we are accustoming the pupil-teachers to manners of dress and living far, far above those of the poor, among whom they must afterward live, and with whom they ought continually to associate. The life of a pupil-teacher in a Normal school ought to be such, that when he leaves it for his village school, he shall find his new position one of greater ease and comfort than the one he has left, and that he may feel no disgust for the laborious drudgery that must fall to his lot in such a situation.

M. Prosper Dumont, in his treatise* on Normal Schools, published in Paris, in 1841, commends the Normal School of Vehrli, "as an excellent model for educating teachers for country schools." So profoundly was he impressed by the character of this practical educator, and the results of his teaching and example, that he regards Vehrli "as a beautiful example of the Normal teacher,—the religious and well-informed laborer, capable of demonstrating, in an unequivocal manner, to working men, that enlightened and elevated sentiments are not incompatible with manual labor. All is here combined to contribute to the education of a country teacher; the example is always placed by the side of the precept; all instruction is mutually connected, and illustrative of each other; the moral, mental, and physical development go along together. The whole atmosphere is pedagogic—the pupil teacher imbibes the spirit of his vocation at every pore. That which strikes most is the happy application of the best principles of education, and the profoundly Christian spirit, without ostentation, which characterizes every portion of the detail."

Vehrli was still laboring in his vocation at Kruitzlingen in 1849, at the age of sixty, with the same simplicity of life, the same singleness of purpose, and the same noble enthusiasm which marked the opening of his career at Hofwyl.

We add a Table exhibiting the allotment of time in each week of the Course of Instruction at Kruitzlingen, in the summer of 1836.

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* M. Dumont received the prize offered by the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, in 1838, for the best discussion of the question: "What degree of perfection may the establishment of primary Normal Schools acquire, considering them in their relation to the moral education of youth?"

The title of the work is "De l'Education Populaire et des Ecoles Normales Primaires." Paris, 1841.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED AT THE NORMAL SEMINARY IN THE CANTON OF THURGOVIA, SWITZERLAND, UNDER THE SUPERINTENDENCE OF M. VEHRLI, IN THE SUMMER HALF YEAR OF 1839.

HOURS.	CLASS.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.	SUNDAY.
5 to 7	First	Out-door labor,	Out-door labor,	Art of teaching,	Out-door labor,	Out-door labor,	Art of teaching.	Attending divine service, sacred music, teaching in Sunday school.
	Second.	Out-door labor,	Out-door labor,	Out-door labor,	Art of teaching,	Out-door labor,	Out-door labor.	
7 to 8	..	Breakfast,	Breakfast,	Breakfast,	Breakfast,	Breakfast,	Breakfast.	
8 to 9	First	Natural history,	Biblical history,	Profane history,	Natural history,	Biblical history,	Profane history.	
	Second.	Profane history,	Biblical history,	Management of land,	Profane history,	Biblical history,	Management of land.	
9 to 10	First	Grammar,	Grammar,	Natural history,	Grammar,	Grammar,	Natural history.	
	Second.	Geometry,	Arithmetic,	Grammar,	Geometry,	Arithmetic,	Grammar.	
10 to 11	First	Singing,	Singing,	Grammar,	Singing,	Singing,	Grammar.	
	Second.	Grammar,	Grammar,	Geometry,	Grammar,	Grammar,	Geometry.	
11 to 12	First	Arithmetic,	Geometry,	Geometry,	Arithmetic,	Geometry,	Arithmetic.	
	Second.	Natural history,	Natural history,	Art of teaching,	Natural history,	Natural history,	Art of teaching.	
12 to 1½	..	Dinner and gymnastic exercises,	Dinner and gymnastic exercises,	Dinner and gymnastic exercises,	Dinner and gymnastic exercises,	Dinner and gymnastic exercises,	Dinner and gymnastic exercises.	
1½ to 3	First	Singing,	Writing,	Drawing,	Singing,	Writing,	Drawing.	
	Second.	Writing,	Drawing,	Violin,	Drawing,	Singing,	. . .	
3 to 4	First	Geography,	Arithmetic,	Arithmetic,	Geography,	Arithmetic,	Writing.	
	Second.	Arithmetic,	Geography,	Natural history,	Arithmetic,	Geography,	. . .	
4 to 5	First	Geometry,	Reading,	Repetitions,	Geometry,	Reading,	. . .	
	Second.	Reading,	Geometry,	Arithmetic,	Reading,	Geometry,	. . .	
5 to 6	..	Supper,	Supper,	Supper,	Supper,	Supper,	Supper.	
6 to 9	..	Garden-work, house-work, conversation.	Garden-work, house-work, conversation.	Garden-work, house-work, conversation.	Garden-work, house-work, conversation.	Garden-work, house-work, conversation.	Garden-work, house-work, conversation.	

NORMAL SCHOOL

AT

KUSSNACHT, IN THE CANTON OF ZURICH.

The Normal School at Kussnacht is about a league from the town of Zurich, and the buildings are prettily situated on the borders of the lake of the same name. This institution was re-organized in 1836, though the modifications made have been rather in the details than in the general principles. It now consists of a school for teachers, a preparatory school for this seminary, and three primary model schools. It is intended to supply teachers for the different grades of primary schools of the canton, and during a portion of the year lectures are also delivered in the seminary to the older teachers, who are assembled for the purpose in their vacations.

The superintendence and control of the Normal School is vested by the legislative council in the council of education, who appoint a committee of superintendence from their own body. This committee visits the school at least once a month, attends its examinations, and, in general, inspects its management. The executive power is delegated to a director, who has the immediate charge of the school, and arranges the plan of instruction, in subordination to the council of education. He examines the candidates for admission, inspects the classes of the seminary, and of the schools attached to it, and lectures in the school of repetition for the older teachers. He is also responsible for the discipline, and reports half-yearly the state of the institution to the council of education. He is moreover present at the meeting of the committee of superintendence. There are three other teachers, besides a variable number of assistants. These teachers in turn have charge of the pupils of the Normal School in and out of school-hours. There are conferences of all the teachers, at which the director presides. The manners of the people and the purpose of the seminary render the discipline of very trifling amount. The pupils of the Normal School reside in the village of Kussnacht, but spend the greater part of their time at the school, under the direction of its masters. All the time devoted to study, recitation or lecture, and regular exercise, is passed there.

To be admitted as a candidate for the Normal School, a youth must be sixteen years of age, and of suitable morals, intellectual, and physical qualities for the profession of a teacher. He must have spent two years in the higher division of primary instruction (called here secondary) in the model school, or some equivalent one, or have passed through the preparatory department of the Normal School, which gives a preference to the candidate, other qualifications being equal. The examination of candidates takes place once a year, and in presence of the committee of superintendence, or of a deputation from their body. The formal right of admitting to the school is, however, vested alone in the council of education. The subjects of examination are Bible history, speaking and reading, grammar, the elements of history, geography and natural philosophy, arithmetic and the elements of geometry, writing, drawing, and vocal music. The council of education fixes the number of pupils who may be admitted, and the most proficient of the candidates are selected. There are forty stipendiary places, ten of the value of one hundred and sixty Swiss francs, (forty-eight dollars,) and thirty of half that sum.

Natives who are admitted all receive their instruction gratis. If t
room in the school, foreigners may be received, paying twelve doll
annum for their instruction. The number of pupils at the date
visit, in the autumn of 1837, was one hundred and ten. The sti
ries are bound to serve as teachers in the canton two years; a ver
erate return for the education received.

There are two grades of courses in the Normal School, one
years for pupils intending to become teachers in the lower p
schools, the other of three years for the higher primary schools.
courses begin in April, and continue, with seven weeks of va
throughout the year. The subjects of instruction are: Religious i
tion, German, French, mathematics, history, geography, natural
and philosophy, pedagogy, writing, drawing, and vocal and instru
music. French is only obligatory upon the students of the three
course. Gymnastic exercises and swimming are regularly taug
practised.

There is, besides, a lecture of an hour and a half on the art of bu
once a week, attended by all the students. Those who learn instru
music have lessons two hours and a half every week, and two h
Sunday are occupied with singing in concert. One of the teach
votes two extra hours every week to the assistance of some of the
in their studies, or to repetitions.

At the close of each year there is a public examination, and the
are classed according to its results. On leaving the institution, th
arranged in three grades; the first, of those who have gone very sa
torily through the school, the second, of those who have passed sa
torily, and the third, of those who have not come up to the sta
Certificates of the first two grades entitle their holders to compete f
vacant primary school.

The courses of practice begin in the second year, when the pup
regular part in the exercises of the schools attached to the sem
These are, first, two model schools for children from the ages of
nine, and from nine to twelve, at which latter age the legal obliga
attend the school ceases. The third, called a secondary school, c
pupils from twelve to sixteen years of age. The system of inst
used in the lower schools is attended with very striking results.
lessons are not divided into distinct branches, studiously kept sepa
in most elementary schools, but are connected, as far as possible, s
keep the different subjects constantly before the mind. Thus, a le
geography is, at the same time, one of history, and incidentally of
mar, natural history, of reading and writing, and so on through th
of elementary instruction. The Pestalozzian lessons on form are
the basis of writing, and with good success. The lowest class is
to speak correctly, and to spell by the phonic method, to divide wo
syllables, and thus to count. To number the lessons. To mak
and combine them, and thus to write, and through writing to read
second passes to practical grammar, continues its reading and
the lessons in which are made exercises of natural history and gr
Reading and speaking are combined to produce accuracy in th
which is a difficulty where the language has been corrupted int
lect, as the German has in northern Switzerland. Movable lett
used to give exercises in spelling and reading. The plan of the
lozzian exercises in grammar is followed, and when the pupi
learned to write, a whole class, or even two classes, may be k
ployed intellectually, as well as mechanically, by one teacher.
ing, the understanding of every thing read is insisted upon, and th
books are graduated accordingly. I never saw more intelligen
readiness displayed by children than in all these exercises; it a

strong contrast to the dullness of schools in which they are taught mechanically. The same principles are carried into the upper classes, and are transplanted into the schools by the young teachers, who act here as assistants. The examination of the second school in Bible history, with its connected geography and grammar lessons; in composition, with special reference to orthography and to the hand-writing; and the music lesson, at all of which the director was so kind as to enable me to be present, were highly creditable.

There are three classes in each of these schools, and the pupils of the Normal Seminary practice as assistant teachers in them at certain periods; the director also gives lessons, which the pupils of the seminary repeat in his presence.

In the highest, or secondary school, the elementary courses are extended, and mathematics and French are added.

The pupils of the preparatory department of the seminary spend two years in teaching in the two model schools, and in receiving instruction in the "secondary school" under the special charge of the director of the seminary. This establishment has furnished, during three years of full activity, two hundred teachers to the cantonal primary schools. These young teachers replace the older ones, who are found by the courses of repetition not able to come up to the present state of instruction, and who receive a retiring pension. The schools must thus be rapidly regenerated throughout the canton, and the education of the people raised to the standard of their wants as republicans.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED IN THE NORMAL SEMINARY AT ZURICH, SWITZERLAND.

	1st Class and 1st School year.		2nd Class and 2nd School year.		3d Class and 3d School year.	
	1st Half year.	2nd Half year.	1st Half year.	2nd Half year.	1st Half year.	2nd Half year.
Religion and Morals.	Geography of Palestine, Jewish Archæology, History of the Christian Church.	Faith and morals, as founded on revelation.	Lectures on the Bible, with questions.	Lectures on the Bible, with practical illustrations and references.	Deeper and more abstruse points of doctrine, with scriptural proofs and practical illustrations.	Continuation of the above.
German Language.	Grammar, exercises in reading and recitations, composition.	Grammar, continuation of exercises in reading and recitations, composition of letters and speeches.	Etymology, and logical exercises, recitations, and composition.	Repetitions of the more difficult parts of grammar, more extended compositions, laws of poetry.	The more important peculiarities of the German language, verbal expositions of the written exercises.	View of German literature: poetical exercises.
French Language.	Exercises in reading, and translation of easy pieces of French into German, introduction to the grammar, and etymology.	Continuation of the above beginning of the translation of German into French: grammar: vocabulary.	Continued exercises of reading and transl. into German: grammar: syntax: trans. from German into French: speaking.	Continuation of exercises in reading and translation: conclusion of syntax: recitations of easy pieces.	Further expositions of grammar, more difficult translations from & into French and German respectively: composition.	Continuation of the above short sketch of French literature.
Arithmetic.	Elementary rules of arithmetic, Vulgar and Decimal Fractions.	Proportion: mental arithmetic.	Continuation of exercises in the elementary rules.	Continuation of exercises in Proportion: Simple Equations.	More difficult applications of the preceding rules.	Quadratic and Cubic Equations: Logarithms, Properties of Numbers: Progression.
Geometry.	The doctrine of parallel lines, properties of triangles, similar triangles.	Measurement of triangles, and straight line figures, planimetry.	Further exposition of the properties of triangles, and of straight line figures.	The circle: elements of stereometry: easy questions in practical geometry.	Continuation of planimetry: plain and solid angles: projection of straight line figures: questions in the above-subjects.	Polygonal figures: elements of trigonometry: practical geometry: projection of bodies with straight or curved surfaces: sections.
	History from the beginning of the world to the	From the building of Rome to the Westpha-	History of Switzerland from the beginning to	History of Switzerland as it bears on that of the	General history from 1389 to 1815.	General history from 1815 to the present time.

Geography.	Introductory explanations, the ocean and continents, with their respective divisions.	Special geography of Europe.	The most important points of mathematical and physical geography.	Geography of Asia, Africa, America, and Australia.	More extended expositions of mathematical and physical geography.	Special geography of Asia, Africa, America, and Australia.
Natural History.	General introduction to natural history, description of elementary bodies, general characteristics of minerals.	Unmetallic minerals, metals, mountains, introduction to botany.	Systems of botany, description of plants, special information on the plants known to the pupils.	Introduction to zoology: classification and descriptions, introduction to the natural history of man.	Natural history of man: further expositions of the natural history of the lower animals.	Introduction to geology: fossils.
Physics.	: :	: :	The common phenomena arising from the various properties of differently constituted bodies.	Acoustics, optics, heat, magnetism, electricity.	Further exposition of the above subjects.	Further exposition of the above subjects.
Singing.	Elementary exercises of the voice, easy choral exercises.	Melody, religious hymns and choral singing.	Further exercises in Sol Fa, also with words, exercises in solo singing and choral singing.	Continuation of the above, special exposition of the art of teaching music.	Continuation of the above.	Continuation of the above.
Art of Writing.	Exercises in German and Roman character, in legal writing, and in black letter writing, music, and stenography.				: :	: :
Drawing.	Sketches from objects placed before the pupil, and from nature; special exercises in shading.				: :	: :
Art of Teaching.	: :	: :	Introduction to psychology, methods of instruction.	Further exposition of methods of instruction, and of the cantonal laws and regulations relative to schools, practical teaching in the primary school.	Fundamental principles of the science of teaching.	Practical teaching in the secondary school.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL OF THE CANTON OF VAUD, AT LAUSANNE, DURING THE WINTER OF 1838—1839.

HOURS.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
8	Prayer, reading, and religious instruction (all,)	As on Monday,	Idem,	Idem,	Idem,	Idem.
9	The art of teaching (all,)	General history (all,)	The art of teaching (all,)	Use of globes, first and second classes,	Swiss history (all,)	Instruction in law and in the duties of a citizen, 1, 2, 3.
10	Geometry, 1, 2, The means of improving the health and condition of the people,	Arithmetic, 1, 2, Theme, 3,	Theme, 1, 2, Arithmetic, 3,	Composition, 1, 2, Mental arithmetic, 3,	Arithmetic, 1, 2, Theme, 3,	Theme, 1, 2. Arithmetic, 3.
11	Botany, 1, 2,	Writing, 1, 2, 3,	Chemistry, then Zoology, 1, 2, 3,	Chemistry, then Zoology, 1, 2, 3,	Writing, 1, 2, 3,	Chemistry, &c. 1, 2, 3.
1	. .	. .	. .	. .	Exercises on the physical sciences, 1, 2,	Writing, 3.
2	Grammar, 1, 2, 3,	Drawing, 1, 2; reading, 3,	Grammar, 1, 2, 3,	Drawing, 3; mental arithmetic, 1, 2,	Geometry, 3, Composition, 1, 2,	Geometry, 1, 2.
3	Gymnastics, 1, 2,	Drawing, 1, 2,	Gymnastics, 3, Book-keeping, 1,	Drawing, 3; reading, 1, 2,	Pedagogical exercises in mathematics, 1, 2,	. .
4	Geography, 3,	Geography, 1, 2,	Reading, 1, 2, Geometry, 3,	Reading, 3,	Swiss Geography, 1, 2, 3,	. .
5	. .	Geography, 3,	. .	Geography, 1, 2,	. .	. .
7	. .	Singing, 3,	Singing, 1, 2, 3,	Singing, 1, 2,	Singing, 1, 2, 3,	. .

N. B.—The figures denote the different classes. The figure 1 being attached to the most advanced class

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL OF THE CANTON OF VAUD AT LAUSANNE, IN THE SUMMER OF 1838.

HOURS.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
5	. . .	Book-keeping (teachers,)* Writing (pupils,)†	Geography (teachers,)	Geography (teachers,) Writing (pupils,)	. . .	On the method of writing (teachers.)
6	Prayer, reading, and religious instruction,	As on Monday,	As on Monday,	As on Monday,	As on Monday,	As on Monday.
7	Composition (older pupils,) Arithmetic, (younger pupils,)	Arithmetic (teachers,) A theme (pupils,)	Composition (teachers,) Geometry (pupils,)	Arithmetic (teachers,) A theme (pupils,)	Composition (teachers,) Geometry (pupils,)	Arithmetic (teachers.) Composition (young pupils.)
8	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .
9	The art of teaching (all,)	Use of the globes (all,)	Art of teaching (all,)	Instruction in the law and duties of a citizen (all,)	Art of teaching (all,)	Instruction in the law and in the duties of a citizen (all.)
10	Geography (teachers,) Mental arithmetic (pupils,)	Grammar (teachers,) Geography (pupils,)	Geometry (teachers,) Grammar (pupils,)	Reading, with analysis of the grammar, structure, and meaning (all,)	Grammar (teachers,) Geography (pupils,)	Geometry (teachers.) Grammar (pupils.)
11	Natural history (all,)	Physics (pupils,)	Natural history (all,)	Natural history (all,)	Pedagogical exercises on the physical sciences (pupils,)	Reading (teachers.) Arithmetic (older pupils.)
2	A theme (teachers,)	Drawing (teachers,) Composition (young pupils,)	A theme (teachers,)	Drawing (pupils,)	. . .	. . .
3	Gymnastics (pupils,)	Drawing (teachers,) Composition (young pupils,)	Geography of Switzerland (teachers,)	Drawing (pupils,)	Gymnastics (pupils,)	. . .
4	Reading (pupils,)	Reading (all,)	Singing (teachers,) Arithmetic (pupils,)	Reading (all,)	Singing (teachers,) Arithmetic (pupils,)	Practical geometry (pupils.)
5	Mental Arithmetic, (teachers,)	Singing (all,)	Singing (pupils,)	Singing (all,)	Singing (pupils,)	. . .

* Teachers are masters of elementary schools in attendance on the Normal School.

† Pupils are young men who have not had charge of elementary schools, but who are preparing for the duties of schoolmasters.

PLAN OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED IN THE THREE COURSES, AT THE NORMAL SEMINARY AT LUCERN, SWITZERLAND.

HOURS.	MONDAY.		TUESDAY.		WEDNESDAY.		THURSDAY.		FRIDAY.		SATURDAY.	
	1st course,	2d and 3d course,	1st and 2d course,	3d course,	1st course,	2d and 3d course,	1st and 2d course,	3d course,			1st and 2d course,	3d course.
8 to 9, or ½ past 9,	Arithmetic,	Grammar and school discipline,	Religious instruction,	Writing,	Geometry,	Composition,	Religious instruction,	Writing,	Same as	Monday,	Religious instruction,	Geometry.
9, or ½ past 9, to 10 or 11,	Grammar and school discipline,	Arithmetic,	Grammar,	Religious instruction,	Composition,	Geometry,	Writing,	Religious instruction,	. .	. .	Grammar,	Religious instruction.
10 to 11,	. .	. .	1st course, Geometry,	2d and 3d course, Composition,	. .	. .	1st course, Composition,	2d and 3d course, Arithmetic,	. .	. .	Arithmetic,	Statistics of Switzerland.
11 to 12,	. .	Singing,	Singing,	. .	. .	Singing,	Singing,	. .	. .	. .	. .	2d and 3d course. Singing.
	1st course,	2d and 3d course,	1st course,	2d and 3d course,	1st course,	2d and 3d course,	1st, 2d, and 3d course,		1st course,	2d and 3d course,	1st course,	2d and 3d course.
½ past 1 to 3,	Art of teaching,	Geometry,	History,	Arithmetic,	. .	. .	Drawing,		Art of teaching,	Arithmetic,	History,	Geometry.
3 to 4,	Arithmetic,	Natural philosophy or history,	Writing,	Natural philosophy,	. .	. .			Arithmetic,	School discipline,	Arithmetic,	Natural philosophy or history.
6 to 7,	Gymnastics,	Geography,	Geography,	Gymnastics,		Geography,	Geography,	Gymnastics,	Gymnastics,	Geography,	Geography,	Gymnastics.

FRANCE.

Before 1789, religious zeal, the spirit of association, the desire of living honorably in the recollection of mankind as the founder of pious or learned institutions, individual enterprise, and to some extent government endowment, had covered France with establishments of higher education, and with men consecrated to their service. This was particularly true with regard to schools for classical education, and the instruction generally of all but the poorer classes of society. In grammar schools and colleges, France was as well provided in 1789, as in 1849. In the upbreak and overthrow of government and society, which took place between 1789 and 1794, and which was, in no small measure, the result of the neglected education of the great mass of the people, these public endowments, many of which had existed for centuries, were destroyed, and these religious and lay congregations, such as the Benedictines, Jesuits, Oratorians, Doctrinaires, Lazaristes, and Brothers of the Christian Doctrine, were abolished, their property confiscated, and most of them were never again re-established. From 1791 to 1794, by various ordinances of the Convention, a system of public schools was projected, in which primary education was to be free to all at the expense of the State. Out of these ordinances sprung the first Normal School in France, and the Polytechnic School in 1794. But the promise of good primary schools was not realized, and the Normal School was abolished in the following year. In 1802 the promise was renewed in a new ordinance, but amid the din of arms, the peculiar fruits of peace could not ripen. In 1808 Napoleon organized the Imperial University, embracing under that designation the governmental control of all the educational institutions of France, primary, secondary, and superior. In one of his decrees, primary instruction (intended for the masses of society) was limited to reading, writing and arithmetic, and the legal authorities were enjoined "to watch that the teachers did not carry their instructions beyond these limits." Under the organization established by Napoleon, and with views of primary education but little expanded beyond the imperial ordinance referred to, and with even these limited views unrealized, the government continued to administer the system of public education till the Revolution of 1830. In the mean time the wants of a more generous and complete system of primary schools had been felt throughout France, and one of the first steps of the new governm to supply this want, and most considerately and thoroughly was t accomplished. Not only were steps taken to increase the numb efficiency of the schools already established, by additional approp for their support, but the Department of Public Instruction was re ized. Normal Schools for the education of Teachers were mu and made effective, and the experience of the best educated s Europe was consulted in reference to the reconstruction of the system.

There is nothing in the history of modern civilization more tru lime than the establishment of the present Law of Primary Instru France. As has been justly remarked by an English writer, " tions ever suffered more bitter humiliation than the Prussians and mutually inflicted during the earlier years of the present centu it was supposed that feelings of exasperation and national a thus engendered by the force of circumstances, were ready, on th being applied, to burst forth in terrible explosion. At the ver however, when the elements of mischief were believed to be mos in the breasts of a people jealous of their honor, and peculiarly to insult, the French ministry, with the consent of the King and bers, send one of their ablest and wisest citizens, not to hurl def demand restitution, but to take lessons in the art of training knowledge and virtue, and that too in the capital of the very natio troops, sixteen years before, had, on a less peaceful mission, biv in the streets of Paris, and planted their victorious cannon at the p of her bridges. There are not many facts in the past history of more cheering than this; not many traits of national character mo nanimous, or indicating more strikingly the progress of reason, coming of that time when the intercourse between nations will co in wars and angry protocols, but in a mutual interchange of good

M. Victor Cousin, one of the most profound and popular writer age, in one department of literature, who was sent on this peace sion in the summer of 1831, submitted in the course of the yea government, a "*Report on the condition of Public Instruction in* *ny, and particularly in Prussia.*" This able document was pu and in defiance of national self-love, and the strongest national anti it carried conviction throughout France. It demonstrated to the ment and the people the immense superiority of all the German even the most insignificant duchy, over any and every depart France, in all that concerned institutions of primary and secondary tion. The following extracts will indicate the conclusions to Cousin arrives in reference to the educational wants of his own c After pronouncing the school law of Prussia "the most compre and perfect legislative measure regarding primary instruction which he was acquainted, he thus addresses himself to the ministe

"Without question, in the present state of things, a law concerning instruction is indispensable in France; the question is, how to produce a good one, in a country where there is a total absence of all precedent and all experience in so grave a matter. The education of the people has hitherto been so neglected,—so few trials have been made, or those trials have succeeded so ill, that we are entirely without those universally received notions, those predilections rooted in the habits and the mind of a nation, which are the conditions and the bases of all good legislation. I wish, then, for a law; and at the same time I dread it; for I tremble lest we should plunge into visionary and impracticable projects again, without attending to what actually exists.

The idea of compelling parents to send their children to school is perhaps not sufficiently diffused through the nation to justify the experiment of making it law; but everybody agrees in regarding the establishment of a school in every *commune* as necessary. It is also willingly conceded that the maintenance of this school must rest with the *commune*; always provided that, in case of inability through poverty, the *commune* shall apply to the department, and the department to the state. This point may be assumed as universally admitted, and may therefore become law.

You are likewise aware that many of the councils of departments have felt the necessity of securing a supply of schoolmasters, and a more complete education for them, and have, with this view, established primary Normal Schools in their departments. Indeed, they have often shown rather prodigality than parsimony on this head. This, too, is a most valuable and encouraging indication; and a law ordaining the establishment of a primary Normal School in each department, as well as a primary school in each *commune*, would do little more than confirm and generalize what is now actually doing in almost all parts of the country. Of course this primary Normal School must be more or less considerable according to the resources of each department.

Here we have already two most important points on which the country is almost unanimously agreed. You have also, without doubt, been struck by the petitions of a number of towns, great and small, for the establishment of schools of a class rather higher than the common primary schools; such as, though still inferior in classical and scientific studies to our royal and communal *colleges*, might be more particularly adapted to give that kind of generally useful knowledge indispensable to the large portion of the population which is not intended for the learned professions, but which yet needs more extended and varied acquirements than the class of day-laborers and artisans. Such petitions are almost universal. Several municipal councils have voted considerable funds for the purpose, and have applied to us for the necessary authority, for advice and assistance. It is impossible not to regard this as the symptom of a real want,—the indication of a serious deficiency in our system of public instruction.

You are sufficiently acquainted with my zeal for classical and scientific studies; not only do I think that we must keep up to the plan of study prescribed in our *colleges*, and particularly the philological part of that plan, but I think we ought to raise and extend it, and thus, while we maintain our incontestable superiority in the physical and mathematical sciences, endeavor to rival Germany in the solidity of our classical learning.

Let our royal *colleges* then, and even a great proportion of our communal *colleges*, continue to lead the youth of France into this sanctuary; they will merit the thanks of their country. But can the whole population enter learned schools? or, indeed, is it to be wished that it should? Primary instruction with us, however, is but meager; between that and the *colleges* there is nothing; so that a tradesman, even in the lower ranks of the middle classes, who has the honorable wish of giving his sons a good education, has no resource but to send them to the *college*. Two great evils are the consequence. In general, these boys, who know that they are not destined to any very distinguished career, go through their studies in a negligent manner; they never get beyond mediocrity; and when, at about eighteen, they go back to the habits and the business of their fathers, as there is nothing in their ordinary life to recall or to keep up their studies, a few years obliterate every trace of the little classical learning they acquired. On the other hand, these young men often contract tastes and acquaintances at *college* which render it difficult, nay, almost impossible, for them to return to the humble way of life to which they were born: hence a race of men restless, discontented with their position, with others, and with themselves; enemies of a state of society in which they feel themselves out of their

place; and with some acquirements, some real or imagined talent, ar
died ambition, ready to rush into any career of servility or of revolt. T
tion then is, whether we are prepared to make ourselves responsible to
and society for training up such a race of malcontents? Unquestiona
shall take occasion to say elsewhere, a certain number of exhibitions
ought to be given to poor boys who evince remarkable aptness: this is
duty we owe to talent; a duty which must be fulfilled, even at the risk
sometimes mistaken. These boys, chosen for the promise they give go
their studies well and thoroughly, and on leaving school experience t
assistance they received on entering. Thus they are enabled, at a late
of life, to display their talents in the learned and liberal professions w
open to them, to the advantage of the state to which they owe their ed
As, however, it is impossible for any government to find employment
body, it ought not to furnish facilities for every body to quit the track
his fathers have trod. Our *colléges* ought, without doubt, to remain o
who can pay the expense of them; but we ought by no means to force
classes into them; yet this is the inevitable effect of having no inte
establishments between the primary schools and the *colléges*. Germ
Prussia more especially, are rich in establishments of this kind.
ceive that I allude to the schools called tradesmen's or burghers' sc
schools for the middle classes, (*Bürgerschulen*,) *écoles bourgeoises*, a nam
it is perhaps impossible to transplant into France, but which is accu
expressive, as contradistinguishing them from the learned schools, (
chulen,) called in Germany *gymnasia*, and in France *colléges*, (in
"grammar-schools,") a name, too, honorable to the class for whose esp
and benefit they are provided; honorable to those of a lower class, wh
quenting them can rise to a level with that above them. The burgher
form the higher step of primary instruction, of which the elementary sc
the lower step. Thus there are but two steps or gradations: 1^{o}. Ele
schools,—the common basis of all popular instruction in town and coun
Burgher schools, which, in towns of some size and containing a mid
furnish an education sufficiently extensive and liberal to all who do no
to enter the learned professions. The Prussian law, which fixes a m
of instruction for the elementary schools, likewise fixes a minimum of
tion for the burgher schools; and there are two kinds of examination, e
distinct, for obtaining the brevet of primary teacher for these tw
tions. The elementary instruction must be uniform and invariable
primary schools represent the body of the nation, and are destined to
and to strengthen the national unity; and, generally speaking, it is no
ent that the limit fixed by the law for elementary instruction should be e
but this is not the case with the burgher schools, for these are desig
class among whom a great many shades and diversities exist,—the mid
It is therefore natural and reasonable that it should be susceptible of e
and elevation, in proportion to the importance of the town, and the cha
the population for whom it is destined. In Prussia this class of sch
accordingly, very different gradations, from the minimum fixed by th
that point where it becomes closely allied with the gymnasium pr
called. At this point it sometimes takes the name of Progymnasium
paratory gymnasia, in which classical and scientific instruction st
within certain limits, but in which the middle or trading class may
truly liberal education. In general, the German burgher schools, wh
little inferior to our communal *colléges* in classical and scientific studie
comparably superior to them in religious instruction, geography, history
languages, music, drawing, and national literature.

In my opinion, it is of the highest importance to create in France, u
name or another, burgher schools, or schools for the middle classes, w
a very varied education; and to convert a certain number of our co
colléges into schools of that description. I regard this as an affair of st

There is a cry raised from one end of France to the other, demandin
half of three-fourths of the population, establishments which may fill th
ground between the simple elementary schools and the *colléges*. The
are urgent and almost unanimous.

The most difficult point in law on primary instruction is the deter
what are the authorities to be employed. Here also let us consult fac

French administration is the glory and the masterwork of the imperial government. The organization of France in *maires* and prefectures, with municipal and departmental councils, is the foundation of government and of social order. This foundation has stood firm amidst so much ruin, that prudence and policy seem to point to it as the best and safest prop. Moreover, this organization has just been reformed and vivified by rendering the municipal and departmental councils elective and popular. Thus the French administration unites all that we want, activity and popularity. The administration, then, is what you must call to your aid. Recollect, also, that it is these local councils that pay, and that you can not fairly expect much from them unless they have a large share in the disbursement of the money they have voted. These councils are chosen out of the body of the people, and return to it again; they are incessantly in contact with the people; they *are* the people legally represented, as the *maires* and the prefects are these councils embodied, if I may so say, in one person. for the sake of activity and despatch. I regard, then, as another incontestable point, the necessary intervention of the municipal and departmental councils in the management of public instruction. As there ought to be a school in every *commune*, so there ought to be for every communal school a special committee of superintendence, which ought to be formed out of the municipal council, and presided over by the *maire*. I shall perhaps be told, that men who are fit to conduct the business of the *commune* are not fit to superintend the communal school. I deny it: nothing is wanted for this superintendence but zeal, and fathers of families can not want zeal where their dearest interests are concerned. In Prussia no difficulty is found in this matter, and every parish-school has its *Schulvorstand*, in great part elective. Over the heads of these local committees there ought to be a central committee in the chief town of each department, chosen out of the council of the department, and presided over by the prefect. The committee of each *commune* would correspond with the committee of the department; that is to say, in short, the *maire*, with the prefect. This correspondence would stimulate the zeal of both committees. By it, the departmental committee would know what is the annual supply of schoolmasters required for the whole department, and consequently, the number of masters the Normal School of the department ought to furnish, and consequently, the number of pupils it ought to admit. It would have incessantly to urge on the zeal of the local committees in establishing and improving schools, for the sake of providing as well as possible for the pupils it sends out of its Normal School. Nothing can be more simple than this organization. It is, applied to primary instruction, what takes place in the ordinary administration: I mean, the combined action of the municipal councils and the departmental councils,—of the *maires* and the prefects.

After the administrative authorities, it is unquestionably the clergy who ought to occupy the most important place in the business of popular education. The rational middle course is to put the *cure* or the pastor, *i. e.* the Catholic and the Protestant clergyman—and if need be both, on every communal committee; and the highest dignitary of the church in each department, on the departmental committee. We must neither deliver over our committees into the hands of the clergy, nor exclude them; we must admit them, because they have a right to be there, and to represent the religion of the country. The men of good sense, good manners, and of consideration in their neighborhood, of whom these committees ought to be, and will be, composed, will gradually gain ascendancy over their ecclesiastical colleagues, by treating them with the respect due to their sacred functions. We must have the clergy; we must neglect nothing to bring them into the path toward which every thing urges them to turn; both their obvious interest, and their sacred calling, and the ancient services which their order rendered to the cause of civilization in Europe. But if we wish to have the clergy allied with us in the work of popular instruction, that instruction must not be stripped of morality and religion; for then indeed it would become the duty of the clergy to oppose it, and they would have the sympathy of all virtuous men, of all good fathers of families, and even of the mass of the people, on their side. Thank God, you are too enlightened a statesman to think that true popular instruction can exist without moral education, popular morality without religion, or popular religion without a church.

The proceedings of the communal and departmental committees, the *maires*, sub-prefects and prefects, ought, like all the other parts of the administr refer to one common center, from which a vigorous impulse and a s guidance may emanate, and upon whom all the responsibility before th bers may rest. This center, in France, as in Prussia, is, the ministry a cil of public instruction. This is not only according to law, but to na reason. It is perfectly consistent to leave primary instruction to the who has all the rest of public instruction, as well as ecclesiastical a his hands; that is to say, the two things with which the education of th is the most intimately connected. Has any evil resulted from the prese of things? Far from it: every body is agreed that the minister and his have done a great deal for primary instruction since the revolution As you would have been able to effect nothing without the municipal partmental councils, the *maires* and prefects, so those authorities ackn that they could have done little or nothing without your co-operat direction. It is you who excited their zeal, who supported and enc them; you who, as the enlightened dispenser of the funds placed in you by the two chambers, have given vigor to public instruction by giving tionate aid to necessitous places.

I strongly recommend the creation of a special inspector of primary tion for each department. Our academical inspectors should be rese schools of the second class, which will suffice, and more than suffice, to all their powers, and all their diligence. Your natural agents and cor ents for primary instruction are the prefects, who would preside ove partmental committees, and to whom the correspondence of *maires* ar munal committees, as well as the report of the departmental inspector be addressed.

The prefects would correspond officially with you, as they have hithe extra-officially; and there would be a councilor in the central council o instruction, specially charged with the reports to be made on that portio business, as in fact there is now. This machinery is very simple, an produce quick results; being less complex, it would work more freel only thing in which I would employ agents taken from the body of would be, the commission of examination appointed for granting school brevets. No one disputes that professors have peculiar qualifications, the necessary impartiality, for that office. I should wish, then, that th ination-commission should be appointed by you, and composed of ma professors of the royal or the communal *colléges* of the department; add the religious part, a clergyman proposed by the bishop.

As to private teachers, and what people are pleased to call liberty of tuition, we must neither oppose it, nor reckon upon it. There are bra the public service which must be secured against all casualties by the st in the first rank of these is primary instruction. It is the bounden duty ernment to guarantee it against all caprices of public opinion, and ag variable and uncertain calculations of those who would engage in it as of subsistence. On this principle are founded our primary Normal Sc each department, bound to furnish annually the average number of sch ters required by the department. We must rely exclusively on these Schools for the regular supply of communal teachers.

But if, in the face of our primary communal schools, there are perso without having passed through the Normal Schools, choose to establish at their own risk and peril, it is obvious that they ought not only to be t but encouraged; just as we rejoice that private institutions and b schools should spring up beside our royal and communal *colléges*. This tition can not be otherwise than useful, in every point of view. If the schools prosper, so much the better; they are at full liberty to try all new methods, and to make experiments in teaching, which, on such can not be very perilous. At all events, there are our Normal Schools all interests are reconciled; the duties of the state, and the rights of indi the claims of experience, and those of innovation. Whoever wishes to private school must be subject to only two conditions, from which no public or private, can on any pretext be exempt,—the brevet of capacit by the commission of examination, and the supervision of the committe *commune* and of the inspector of the department.

All these measures, on which I will not enlarge, are more or less fou existing facts; they have the sanction of experience; it would be simply advantageous to add that of law. On all the points concerning which the law is silent, experiments might be made. Among these experiments some would probably be successful: when sufficiently long practice had confirmed them, they might be inserted in a new law; or *ordonnances* and instructions, maturely weighed by the royal council, would convert them into general and official measures. Nothing must pass into a law which has not the warranty of success. Laws are not to be perilous experiments on society; they ought simply to sum up and to generalize the lessons of experience."

On the experience of Prussia as a basis, a great and comprehensive measure of elementary education for France was framed by M. Guizot. The bill was reported in 1832. In introducing the measure to the consideration of the Chamber of Deputies, M. Guizot made a speech as remarkable for its eloquence as for its large and liberal views of popular education, as will be indicated by the following passages:

"In framing this bill, it is experience, and experience alone, that we have taken for our guide. The principles and practices recommended have been supplied to us by facts. There is not one part of the mechanism which has not been worked successfully. We conceive that, on the subject of the education of the people, our business is rather to methodize and improve what exists, than to destroy for the purpose of inventing and renewing upon the faith of dangerous theories. It is by laboring incessantly on these maxims, that the Administration has been enabled to communicate a firm and steady movement to this important branch of the public service; so much so, that we take leave to say, that more has been done for primary education during the last two years, (1831, 1832,) and by the Government of July, than during the forty years preceding, by all the former Governments. The first Revolution was lavish of promises, without troubling itself about the performance. The Imperial Government exhausted itself in efforts to regenerate the higher instruction, called secondary; but did nothing for that of the people. The restored Dynasty, up to 1828, expended no more than 50,000 francs annually upon primary instruction. The Ministry of 1828 obtained from the Chamber a grant of 300,000 francs. Since the Revolution of July, 1830, a million has been voted annually—that is, more in two years than the Restoration in fifteen. Those are the means, and here are the results. All of you are aware that primary instruction depends altogether on the corresponding Normal Schools. The prosperity of these establishments is the measure of *its* progress. The Imperial Government, which first pronounced with effect the words, Normal Schools, left us a legacy of one. The Restoration added five or six. Those, of which some were in their infancy, we have greatly improved within the last two years, and have, at the same time, established thirty new ones; twenty of which are in full operation, forming in each department a vast focus of light, scattering its rays in all directions among the people."

The Bill recognized two degrees of primary instruction, viz. elementary and superior, in speaking of which M. Guizot remarks:

"The first degree of instruction should be common to the country and the towns; it should be met with in the humblest borough, as well as in the largest city, wherever a human being is to be found within our land of France. By the teaching of reading, writing, and accounts, it provides for the most essential wants of life; by that of the legal system of weights and measures, and of the French language, it implants, enlarges, and spreads every where the spirit and unity of the French nationality; finally, by moral and religious instruction, it provides for another class of wants quite as real as the others, and which Providence has placed in the hearts of the poorest, as well as of the richest, in this world, for upholding the dignity of human life and the protection of social order. The first degree of instruction is extensive enough to make a man of him who will receive it, and is, at the same time, sufficiently limited to be every where realized. It is the strict debt of the country toward all its children.

But the law is so framed, that by higher elementary schools, primary instruction can be so developed, so varied, as to satisfy the wants of thos sions which, though not scientific, yet require to be acquainted with ments of science, as they apply it every day in the office, the worksh field.'"

On the plan of supervision of schools, which embraced both lo state inspection, the Minister remarks:

"In the first place, this operation demands, at certain times of the yea more time, application, and patience, than can reasonably be expect men of the world, like the member of the council of the arrondissemen the department; or from men of business, necessarily confined to their like the members of the municipal council. In the next place, posit technical knowledge of the various matters on which the examination absolutely necessary; and it is not sufficient to *have* such knowledge, have been proved to exist, in order to give to these examinations the weight and authority. For these reasons, the members of these comm ought to be, in great part, men specially qualified—men familiar with t ness of tuition. It is evident that primary instruction rests entirely examinations. Suppose a little negligence, a little false indulgence, ignorance, and it is all over with primary instruction. It is necessary compose these commissions with the most scrupulous severity, and to only persons versed in the matter."

The necessity of providing for the professional education and t of teachers is thus eloquently set forth:

"All the provisions hitherto described would be of none effect, if we pains to procure for the public school thus constituted, an able mas worthy of the high vocation of instructing the people. It can not be t repeated, that it is the master that makes the school. And, indeed, well-assorted union of qualities is required to constitute a good schoo A good schoolmaster ought to be a man who knows much more th called upon to teach, that he may teach with intelligence and with taste to live in a humble sphere, and yet to have a noble and elevated mind may preserve that dignity of sentiment and of deportment, without whic never obtain the respect and confidence of families; who possesses a ra ture of gentleness and firmness; for, inferior though he be in station individuals in the *commune*, he ought to be the obsequious servant of n man not ignorant of his rights, but thinking much more of his duties; to all a good example, and serving to all as a counselor; not given to his condition, but satisfied with his situation, because it gives him the doing good; and who has made up his mind to live and to die in the se primary instruction, which to him is the service of God and his fell tures. To rear masters approaching to such a model is a difficult task; we must succeed in it, or else we have done nothing for elementary ins A bad schoolmaster, like a bad parish priest, is a scourge to a *commu* though we are often obliged to be contented with indifferent ones, we our best to improve the average quality. We have, therefore, avai selves of a bright thought struck out in the heat of the Revolution, by of the National Convention, in 1794, and afterward applied by Nap his decree, in 1808, for the organization of the University, to the establ of his central Normal School at Paris. We carry its application sti than he did in the social scale, when we propose that no school-master appointed who has not himself been a pupil of the school which instruc art of teaching, and who is not certified, after a strict examination, profited by the opportunities he has enjoyed."

No statesman of any age or country, has expressed in language eloquent and just, a more exalted estimate of the mission of the t Although not uttered in this connection, the following passag illustrate the views presented above:

"Humble as the career of a schoolmaster may be, and though doomed his whole existence most frequently within the sphere of a small com his labors are, nevertheless, felt throughout society at large, and his profession is as important as that of any other public functionary. It is not for any particular parish alone, or merely local interest, that the law demands that every man should acquire, if possible, the knowledge which is indispensable in social life, and without which intelligence often languishes and degenerates; it is for the state itself and the public interest; it is because liberty is certain and steadfast only among people enlightened enough to listen, in every circumstance, to the voice of Reason. Public elementary instruction is one of the guarantees of order and social stability. Doomed to pass his life in discharging the monotonous duties of his vocation, sometimes even in struggling with the injustice or the ingratitude of ignorance, the parish schoolmaster would often repine, and perhaps sink under his afflictions, did he not draw strength and courage from another and higher source than that of immediate and mere personal interest. A deep sense of the moral importance of his duties must support and encourage him; and the austere pleasure of having rendered service to mankind, must become the worthy recompense which his own conscience alone can give. It is his glory to pretend to nothing beyond the sphere of his obscure and laborious condition; to exhaust his strength in sacrifices which are scarcely noticed by those who reap their benefit; to labor, in short, for his fellow-beings, and to look for his reward only to God.

Your first duty is toward the children confided to your care. The teacher is summoned upon by the parent to share his authority; this authority he must exercise with the same vigilance, and almost with the same affection. Not only is the health of the children committed to him, but the cultivation of their affections and intelligence depends almost entirely on him. In all that concerns education, as it is generally understood, you shall want for nothing that can be of service to you; but as to the moral education of the children, I trust especially to you. Nothing can supply for you, the desire of faithfully doing what is right. You must be aware, that, in confiding a child to your care, every family expects that you will send him back an honest man; the country, that he will be made a good citizen. You know that virtue does not always follow in the train of knowledge; and that the lessons received by children might become dangerous to them, were they addressed exclusively to the understanding. Let the teacher, therefore, bestow his first care on the cultivation of the moral qualities of his pupils. He must unceasingly endeavor to propagate and establish those imperishable principles of morality and reason—without which, universal order is in danger; and to sow in the hearts of the young those seeds of virtue and honor, which AGE, riper years, and the passions, will never destroy. Faith in Divine providence, the sacredness of duty, submission to parental authority, the respect due to the laws, to the king, and to the rights of every one—such are the sentiments which the teacher will strive to develop.

The intercourse between the teacher and parents can not fail of being frequent. Over this, kindness must preside: were a teacher not to possess the respect and sympathy of the parents, his authority over their children would be compromised, and the fruit of his lessons lost; he can not, therefore, be too careful and prudent in regard of these connections. An intimacy inconsiderately formed might injure his independence, and sometimes even mix him up with those local dissensions which frequently distract small communities. While civilly yielding to the reasonable demands of parents, he must, at the same time, be particularly careful not to sacrifice to their capricious exactions his educational principles, and the discipline of the school.'

The duties of the teacher toward those in authority are still clearer, and not less important. He is himself an authority in his parish; how then can it be fitting that he give an example of insubordination? Wherefore should he not respect the magistracy, religious authority, and the legal powers, whereby public security is maintained?

The Mayor is the head of the community; the interest, therefore, as well as the duty of the schoolmaster, is to exemplify on every occasion the respect due to him. The vicar and pastor are also entitled to respect, for their mission is in accordance with all that is most elevated in human nature. Nothing, besides, is more desirable than a perfect understanding between the minister of religion and the teacher; both are in possession of moral authority; both require the confidence of families; both can agree in exercising over the children committed to their care, in several ways, a common influence."

With such enlarged views of the scope, and agencies, and en
mary instruction, the bill was framed and introduced into the
of Deputies and of Peers. It was referred to committees, who
through M. Renouard in the lower, and M. Cousin in the upp
These reports are full and elaborate discussions of great princi
especially that of M. Cousin.

The bill, after going through a protracted examination and d
of its details, received the sanction of the Chambers and the
became a law on the 28th of June, 1833. Under the wise and
administration of the department of public instruction, by suc
Guizot, Cousin, Villemain, and Salvandy, the system went into
ate and successful operation, giving a powerful impulse to the
of popular intelligence throughout the whole domain of France
rience has brought to light some imperfections and deficiencies
which have been remedied or supplied, and others are still unde
sion. We must wait till a generation has passed through the
instruction now provided by law, and come into active life, befor
fully appreciate the wise forecast of the labors of Cousin and
this long neglected field of primary education.

It should be added, that a private association, called "The S
Elementary Instruction," was very instrumental in waking up t
tion of the people and of government to the condition and impro
primary schools. This society was formed in 1805, by a number
guished philanthropists, and has continued in active operation to
ent time. It has been instrumental in establishing infant school
for needle-work, adult schools and classes, reformatory schools, as
for teachers, village libraries in various parts of France, and h
plete series of popular schools under its immediate management
The Minister of Public Instruction, in 1835, ascribed to it the
having given the first impulse to the present school law. It
a monthly journal of its proceedings, and was mainly instrume
tablishing, in 1830, the "Journal de l'Instruction Elémentaire,"
still continued under the title of "Manuel Général de l'Instruc
maire," and is the official organ of the Minister of Public In
There is also published another educational journal, called "L'
Ecoles Primaires," devoted to the dissemination of improved m
instruction. It commenced in 1837, and was for several years
editorship of M. Cousin, assisted by many of the best teachers a
tors in France. We noticed articles by Beudant, Willm, P
Philippar, and several directors of Normal Schools, and Inspect
Primary Schools. Upward of one hundred volumes on the sci
art of education have been published in Paris since 1835; several
are by men of the best intellect, and large practical and be
views.

OUTLINE

OF THE

SYSTEM OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN FRANCE.

FRANCE is divided by law for municipal and all administrative purposes, into 86 Departments, 363 Arrondissements, 2,842 Cantons, and 39,381 Communes.

In each department there is appointed by the legal voters a prefect, who is associated with a general council for the department, and a special council for each arrondissement, in the administration of the local affairs of the department; in each canton there is a judicial office, styled *juge de paix;* in each commune, a mayor, with a municipal council, elected by the people.

Since 1808 there has existed in the government a central and special department for the administration of public instruction, for the application of all funds appropriated by the state for educational, scientific or literary purposes. Over this department has presided from time to time, some of the most distinguished scholars and statesmen of France, and no branch of the public service has been regarded, for the last thirty years, with more favor by the Chambers, or the people. Since 1824, the chief of this department has had a seat in the cabinet council of the king, which consists of nine members.

To the supervision of the department of public instruction, as now organized, are assigned all schools, primary, secondary and superior, which together constitute the University of France, and are directed and superintended in its name; all scientific and literary societies to the support of which the government contributes, such as the Institute, the Academy of Medicine, &c.; all public libraries, which the state maintains, or to which it contributes; all institutions having charters prior to 1808, and which were not by royal ordinance incorporated into the University; and all encouragements, by the way of subscription, or publication, to science and letters.

The *Royal University of France* embraces the whole system of national education, and includes all the institutions for imparting instruction which are spread over the whole kingdom, from the lowest schools, up to the highest colleges. The term may thus be considered synonymous with the French national system of education.

The University is placed under the direction of a council of six members, called the "royal council of public instruction," of which the minister of public instruction is the official president. Each councilor has the special charge of one or more divisions of public instruction. Subordinate to this council are the inspectors-general of the University, who are required to examine, once a year, the institutions of every description, each within a certain district assigned to him, and to transmit a report to the council.

The University is composed of twenty-six *Academies*, each of which comprehends two, three, or more of the departments into which the kingdom is divided, and contains one or more royal colleges. The presiding officer of each academy is the rector, who is appointed by the minister of public instruction, and is assisted by two inspectors and a council. The governing body of each academy has the superintendence of all the communal colleges, institutions, *pensions*, (boarding schools,) Normal Schools,

or schools for the education of teachers, and primary schools, wi
district which the seminary comprehends.

Besides the superintending body, the academy includes the t
corps, or faculties; namely, the faculties of letters, science, m
law, and theology, all of which, however, do not actually exist i
academy; in some indeed, there is no organization of faculties.
faculties consist of a variable number of professors, one of whom
and a committee of whom examine candidates for degrees. Th
however, some institutions which are not subject to the jurisdi
the University; as the College of France, the Museum of Natur
ry, the *Ecole des Chartes*, School of Oriental Languages, the
Institute, and societies of all kinds for the advancement of knowle

The royal colleges are supported chiefly by the government,
salaries of the professors, which are generally from $400 to $800,
from the budget of the minister of public instruction. The stud
divided into two classes, the *internes* and *externes*, or boarders a
scholars. The communal colleges are supported principally by t
munes in which they are situate; some of them have endowme
the majority depend chiefly for their support on the fees paid by
dents. The professors or teachers receive but small salaries,
from $200 to $600.

A distinguishing feature of the system of public instruction in
is the appointment of all professors in all the colleges and lyceu
in the faculties of law, medicine, theology, and letters, and all
tions of education above the primary school, by public competi
concours.) A concours may last a few days only, or it may
months. The months of September and August are the months
tion in the different colleges, and are usually devoted to the pub
petition of candidates for any professorship or chair declared to b
by the minister of public instruction. The judges are select
among the most distinguished scholars in France. The mode
ducting the trial varies with the department to be filled. But it
ces every mode by which the accuracy and extent of the attain
each candidate in the study can be tested, as well as his ability
municate his knowledge to classes of pupils. Each candidate is
to the criticism of his competitor. Every professor in all the
and great schools of France has passed through this ordeal.

Nearly all the higher schools of learning and science are conc
in Paris. Almost all the young men who want to complete their
whether in letters, law, medicine, or the arts,—in short, in all th
paratory to any learned or liberal career, are forced to live in the
This is attended with a disastrous result, in the neglect or discont
of all domestic training and discipline, which can not be compens
any superiority of mental culture, secured by the concentration
men, and all the means and appliances of superior education at the

There are six faculties of *Catholic theology*, at Aix, Bordeaux,
Paris, Rouen, and Toulouse; and two of *Protestant theology*, on
Lutheran or Augsburg confession, at Strasburg, and another of t
vanist or Helvetic confession, at Montauban, under the academy
louse.

The faculties of law are nine, at Aix, Caen, Dijon, Grenoble, Pa
tiers, Rennes, Strasburg, and Toulouse. There are three fac
medicine, at Grenoble, Paris, and Montpellier; with seventeen se
schools of medicine.

The faculties of science are nine in number, at Paris, Bordeaux
burg, Caen, Toulouse, Montpellier, Dijon, Lyons, and Grenoble;
letters or literature, seven, at Paris, Strasburg, Bordeaux, Toulou
en, Dijon, and Besançon.

In order to become a student in law or theology, a person must have taken the degree of bachelor of letters; and a course of three years in either faculty, is requisite to obtain the degree of bachelor; for the degree of doctor, four years; and to obtain the degree of doctor in divinity, the candidate must defend a final and general thesis. Candidates for the degree of doctor in medicine, must have taken the degree of bachelor of letters, and also of sciences, and must complete a course of four years. The faculties of law and medicine at Paris, are greatly distinguished. The former has sixteen professors, and had, in 1836, upward of 3000 students: the latter, twenty-seven professors, and in 1836, about 4000 students.

The law ordains at least one elementary school in every commune, and those communes in which the population exceeds 6000, are required to support one superior primary school, and are aided in opening infant schools, evening schools, classes for adults, and high schools.

Where the number of families of different sects is sufficient, the minisister of public instruction is authorized to grant permission, if advisable so to do, to the commune to establish separate schools for the children of each denomination.

By a law passed in March, 1841, the duty of school attendance is made obligatory. No young person below the age of twelve years can be employed in any workshop or manufactory, unless his parents or guardians testify that he actually attends some public or private school within the locality, and all such as were so employed at the date of this law, were required to attend school till the age of twelve. All young persons above the age of twelve can be excused from attending a school, only in case a certificate can be given by the Mayor of their place of residence, that they have received the primary or elementary instruction. To meet the wants of those adults, who have grown up without the advantages of school attendance, evening schools, and classes for adults, are established and provided for, by law.

The central government, the departmental authorities, the municipal authorities, the religious authorities, the heads of families, have each their sphere of action, and their influence in the administration of primary schools.

The local management of a primary school is intrusted to a committee of the commune, consisting of the mayor, the president of the council, the *cure*, or pastor, and one person appointed by the committee of the arrondissement in which the commune is situated.

The general supervision of the schools of each arrondissement is assigned to a committee of the arrondissement, which consists of the mayor of the chief town, of the *juge de paix*, a pastor of each of the recognised religious sects, a professor of a college, or school of secondary instruction, a primary schoolmaster, three members of the council of the arrondissement, and the members of the council-general of the department who reside in the arrondissement.

These committees meet once a month. The communal committees inspect and report the condition of the schools in the commune to the committee of the arrondissement. Some member of the committee of the arrondissement is present at each local inspection, and a report of the whole committee on the state of education in the arrondissement is made annually to the minister of public instruction.

In each department there is a commission of primary education, composed of at least seven members, among which there must be a minister of each of the religious denominations recognized by law, and at least three persons who are at the time, or have been, engaged in teaching public schools of secondary instruction. This committee is charged with the examination of all candidates for the certificate of qualification to teach primary schools, or to enter the Normal School of the depa These examinations must be public, at a time fixed, and notified minister, and in the chief town of the department. The examin varied according to the grade of school for which the candid plies. With a certificate of capacity from this commission, the date can teach in any commune in the department, without a examination.

Besides these local committees the minister of public instruc points an inspector for every department, with assistant inspector required by the exigences of the public service. The duty of the tor is to visit every school in the department, at least once a year inquire into the state of the school-house, the classification, moral ter, and methods of discipline and instruction of each school. leave a written memorandum of all deficiencies noted in his visit use of the local committee, and report annually to the prefec department, and through him to the minister. This stimula encourages teachers, as well as communes, and informs the ministe true wants of different localities, as well as the deficiencies of t The inspectors are required to pay particular attention to the Schools in their several departments. The inspector has a salar thousand francs, and an allowance of three francs a day for t expenses, and one franc for every school visited. In 1843 the eighty-seven inspectors, and one hundred and fourteen sub-ins and the number of communes visited by them in that year, was making 50,986 visits to schools.

The resources of the state, the departments, the communes, contributions paid by parents, combine to insure the creation an tenance of the school. Every commune must provide a schoo and residence for the school-master, and to the first expense of th the state contributes one third. Every teacher must have a lod its equivalent in money, and a fixed salary of 200 francs, or 400 (from $40 to $80,) according to the grade of school, in addition monthly fees paid by parents, and collected by the commune. commune refuses, or neglects to provide by tax on the propert commune, the government imposes and collects the same. If t mune, on account of poverty or disaster to crops or depression in b can not raise its necessary sum, the department to which it belon provide it, and if the revenues of the department are not sufficient ply the deficiencies of all the communes, the deficit must be sup the state. In every department, the prefect and general-council, a draw up in concert a special estimate in which the expense of instruction is fixed, and necessary revenue provided. In each co the Mayor and municipal council make a special estimate of th kind; and at the same time fix the monthly tuition-fee to be paid parent.

Every department must by itself, or in concert with adjoining ments, support a Normal School, to supply the annual demand fo ers of primary schools. The sum to be expended on a Normal for the salaries of teachers, apparatus, and bursaries, or scholarshi of poor pupils, is not left with the department to fix, but is regul the council of public instruction. The salary of the Director is b the state and department combined; that of the assistant teachers department. The expense of the normal pupils for board is bo themselves, unless they enjoy an exhibition or scholarship, founded state, department, university, commune, or by individual bene The scholarships are sometimes divided so as to meet, in part, the e of two or three pupils. In 1846, there were ninety-two Normal S seventy-six of which were for the education of schoolmasters, and for the education of schoolmistresses. To fifty-two of these schools enough land is attached to teach agriculture and horticulture.

The course of instruction in these elementary schools, embraces Moral and Religious Instruction, Reading, Writing, the elements of Arithmetic, elements of the French Language, legal system of Weights and Measures, Geography, (particularly of France,) History, (particularly of France,) Linear Drawing, and Singing. In the superior primary schools, or High School, the above course is extended so as to embrace Modern Languages, Book-keeping, Perspective Drawing, Chemistry, and the Mathematics, in their application to the arts. There is a special course of instruction open in evening schools, to those children and youth who can not attend the day school; and in evening classes for adults, whose early education was neglected, or who may wish to pursue particular studies connected with their pursuits as artizans, manufacturers, and master-workmen.

Provision is made to encourage teachers to form associations, and to hold frequent conferences for improvement in their professional knowledge and skill, and to found libraries of books on education.

In each department a fund is accumulating for the relief of aged teachers, and of the widows and children of teachers, who die in the exercise of their important functions. Each master must subscribe one twentieth part of the salary he receives from the commune; and the sum-total which he subscribes, together with the interest upon it, is returned to him when he retires, or to his widow and children, when he dies.

The government awards medals of silver and bronze to those masters who distinguish themselves in the management of their schools. This encourages and stimulates them to continued efforts, and connects them in an honorable way, with the government and the nation.

The whole charge to the State of the department of public instruction, according to the Budget of 1838, was 19,005,673 francs, or nearly $4,000,000, which was distributed as follows:

	Francs.
Central Administration,	686,623
General Services,	238,000
Department and Academic Administration,	919,900
Superior Instruction, faculties,	1,972,050
Secondary Instruction,	1,655,600
Elementary Instruction, general fund,	1,600,000
do. do. additional,	3,500,000
Primary Normal School,	200,000
Literary and Scientific establishments,	7,676,500
Subscriptions to Literary Works, &c.	557,000
Total,	19,005,673
	or $3,800,354.

This does not include the sum to be raised in the departments and communes, or contributed by parents.

From the reports of the Minister of Public Instruction, for 1843, it appears that in the ten years, from 1833 to 1843, France expended the sum of £2,565,883 (about $11,000,000,) on the erection of school-houses, and residences for teachers. In 1843, the expenditure for the current expenses of her educational establishments was a little short of $4,000,000, independent of the sum paid by the communes, individuals, and parents in school fees, which amount to near $5,000,000. Even this sum was found insufficient, and since that date the appropriation has been increased. In 1833 there was one person in every eighteen of the population, receiving education, while in 1843, there was one in every ten. But the primary schools are far from reaching the excellence which characterizes the elementary schools of Germany. Much is yet to be done to carry liberal provision of the law.

In a late Report, (1849,) on the state of common school instru Germany, to the President of the Society for Elementary Instru France, by A. Hennequin, late inspecteur d'academie, the fo five questions are all answered in the affirmative, by the author:

Is the inspection of schools better practised in Germany than in France?
Are the common schools in Germany superior to ours?
Are the people in Germany better instructed than in France?
Are the German teachers superior to the French teachers?
Are the methods of instruction in Germany better than ours?

A volume of 756 pages was published at Breslau, in 1848, by I on the schools and school-system of France. The author has many years in Paris, as a teacher, and has had access to the la cial information. Although much has been done since 1833, to the primary schools, the author thinks that their condition in re school-houses, attendance of children, universality and quality of tion given, and the qualifications, social and pecuniary positio teachers, is far behind that of the same grade of schools in G The Normal Schools are accomplishing much good, but they h been able yet to supply a majority of the communes with wel teachers. The Normal Schools at Versailles, and Strasbourg, nounced the best in France, and the latter especially, is regarded ing the nearest approach to the best teachers' seminaries in Ger

The following tables will exhibit the working of this great sy public instruction in several important particulars.

TABLE I.

EXHIBITING THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS EMBRACED IN THE UNIVERSITY OF FRANC

Academies.	Departments.	Royal Colleges	Professors.	Internal Students.	External Students.	Communal Colleges.	Institutions	Boarding Schools.	Normal
Aix,	4	1	14	160	230	16	5	41	
Amiens,	3	1	12	121	180	10	2	50	
Angers,	3	1	12	118	110	18	1	17	
Besancon,	3	1	12	110	160	15	2	21	
Bordeaux,	3	1	13	170	120	7	5	54	
Bourges,	3	1	12	129	120	9	1	21	
Caen,	3	1	15	212	290	16	1	25	
Cahors,	3	2	22	90	160	9	1	47	
Clermont,	4	3	42	287	292	12	—	30	
Dijon,	3	1	13	88	150	20	—	36	
Donai,	2	1	12	131	110	21	6	43	
Grenoble,	3	1	14	133	141	7	4	25	
Limoges,	3	1	11	88	220	9	5	18	
Lyons,	3	1	20	276	264	6	10	52	
Metz,	2	1	15	190	240	5	1	26	
Montpelier,	4	2	23	199	256	17	2	36	
Nancy,	3	1	14	110	260	15	—	25	
Nimes,	4	3	39	365	226	10	2	26	
Orleans,	3	2	24	241	286	5	3	31	
Paris,	7	7	180	1629	3324	19	77	251	
Pau,	3	1	12	57	90	10	1	32	
Poictiers,	4	1	15	130	201	14	4	34	
Rennes,	5	3	33	346	407	18	3	35	
Rouen,	2	1	17	164	491	9	3	68	
Strasburg,	2	1	14	121	203	12	1	15	
Toulouse,	4	1	15	112	239	9	6	55	
Total.	86	41	626	5779	8870	318	146	1114	5

TABLE II.

SHOWING THE CONDITION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE DIFFERENT COMMUNES, IN 1843.

Number of arrondissements	363
Number of communes	37,038
Population	34,230,178
Number of communes provided with a primary school	34,578
Population of the communes provided with primary schools	33,080,002
Number of communes not yet provided with a primary school	2,460
Population of the communes not yet provided with primary schools	1,150,176
Number of communes who require several primary schools, and who possess only one	23
Number of communes who are required by law to support one superior primary school	290
Number of communes who ought to support superior primary schools, and who do support them	222
Population of these communes	4,177,047
Number of communes who ought to support several superior primary schools, and who support only one	23
Number of communes who are not required by law to support a superior primary school, and who do support one	103
Total number of primary schools, elementary and superior, for boys and girls, established in France in 1843	59,838
Total number of primary schools in the 86 departments of France, visited in 1843 by the 87 inspectors and 113 sub-inspectors	50,936

In addition to these schools for the youth there ought to be added 6,434 classes for the laborers, which are conducted by the primary school teachers in the evenings, after the day's work, or on the Sunday, and in which 95,064 adult laborers received instruction in 1843; and also a great number of infant schools which have been recently opened in the departments, and which are receiving great encouragement and attention from the Government.

TABLE III.

SHOWING THE NUMBER OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS BELONGING TO THE DIFFERENT SECTS.

Primary schools specially set apart for the Roman Catholics	Public schools	Boys .	33,207	40,867	56,812
		Girls .	7,660		
	Private schools	Boys .	7,098	15,945	
		Girls .	8,847		
Primary schools specially set apart for the Protestants . .	Public schools	Boys .	702	761	1,080
		Girls .	59		
	Private schools	Boys .	163	39	
		Girls .	156		
Primary schools specially set apart for the Jews	Public schools	Boys .	33	37	115
		Girls .	4		
	Private schools	Boys .	74	78	
		Girls .	4		
Mixed schools open for all three sects .	Public schools	Boys .	948	1,055	1,831
		Girls .	107		
	Private schools	Boys .	326	776	
		Girls .	450		
Total number of Primary Schools in France, in 1843, . :					59,838

The number of the Roman Catholic population of France being 33, it follows, (see Table I.,) that in 1843, there was one primary school f 581 Roman Catholics.

The number of the Protestant population of France being 1,000,00 lows, that in 1843, there was one primary shool for every 1,018 Prot The reason why the proportion of schools for the Protestants to their is so small is, that very many of this sect attend the mixed schools.

The number of Jews being 80,000, it follows, that there was one sc every 695 Jews.

TABLE IV.

SHOWING THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN ATTENDANCE AT THE PRIMARY SCHOO FRANCE, IN 1843.

Number of Scholars at the Public Elementary Primary Schools for Boys,	
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters, ...	1,699,586
" " Schoolmasters, members of Religious Societies, ...	157,431
Number of Scholars at the Public Superior Primary Schools for Boys,	
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters, ...	15,092
" " Schoolmasters, members of Religious Societies, ...	356
Number of Scholars at the Public Schools for Girls,	
Directed by Lay Schoolmistresses, ...	230,213
" " Schoolmistresses, members of Religious Societies, ...	304,747
Number of Scholars at the Private Elementary Primary Schools for Boys,	
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters, ...	230,383
" " Schoolmasters, members of Religious Societies, ...	42,552
Number of Scholars at the Private Superior Primary Schools for Boys,	
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters, ...	3,469
" " Schoolmasters, members of Religious Societies, ...	803
Number of Scholars at the Private Primary Schools for Girls,	
Directed by Lay Schoolmistresses, ...	278,637
" " Schoolmistresses, members of Religious Societies, ...	201,028
Total number of Scholars at all the Primary Schools,	
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters or Schoolmistresses,	2,457,380
" " Schoolmasters or Schoolmistresses, members of Religious Societies, ...	706,917
Total number of children attending the Primary Schools in 1843,	
Total number of children admitted gratuitously into the Communal Schools in 1843, ...	
Total number of children who paid something monthly for their education in 1843, ...	

TABLE V.

SHOWING THE NUMBER AND CONDITION OF THE CLASSES FOR ADULTS, FOR YOUNG GIRLS, AND FOR YOUNG APPRENTICES IN FRANCE, IN 1843.

Number of classes for Adults,		6,434
" " " Young Girls,		160
" " " Apprentices,		36
Number of Infant Schools,		
Public,	685	1,489
Private,	804	
Number of Scholars,		
In the classes for Adults,	95,064	108,432
" " Young Girls,	5,908	
" Schools for Apprentices,	1,268	
" Infant Schools,	96,192	
Number of communes in which there are Adult Classes,	6,043	
Number of Adult Classes,		
for Men,		6,266
" Women,		168
Number of persons who frequent them,		
for Men,		9,451
" Women,		4,613
Number of Classes directed by		
Schoolmasters belonging to a Religious Society,		125
Schoolmistresses, " " " "		51
Number of Adult Classes in which are taught		
Moral and Religious Instruction,		3,331
Reading,		5,035
Writing,		4,483
Arithmetic,		4,456
System of Weights and Measures,		3,857
Linear Drawing,		271
Vocal Music,		107
Resources of these Classes,		
Sums furnished by the Communes,	136,836	Francs. 201,886
" " " Departments,	38,350	
" " " State,	26,700	

TABLE VI.

SHOWING THE NUMBER AND COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN THE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF FRANCE, IN 1843.

Number of Normal Schools thoroughly organized,	78
Number to which a garden is joined for the purpose of teaching the pupils the culture of trees,	52
Number of Professors in these schools,	495
" " including the Directors,	573

Number of hours devoted weekly to the different branches of education:	1st Year.	2d Year.	3d Year.
Moral and Religious Instruction	2¾	2¾	2¼
Reading,	3¾	3	2
Writing,	4½	4¼	4
Study of the French Language,	6	5½	4¼
History and Geography,	3¼	4½	3½
Arithmetic,	5	3½	3
Use of the Globes,	2	2¼	2
Elements of Practical Geometry,	4	3½	3¼
Elements of Physics and Natural History,	2¾	2¾	3½
" Mechanics,	2	2¼	3
" Surveying,	2	2¼	3
Linear Drawing,	3½	4	4½
Methods of teaching,	1¾	1¾	2¾
Vocal Music,	3½	3¼	3½
Civil Law,	2	1½	1½
Culture of Trees,	1¾	1¾	1¾

TABLE VII.

SHOWING THE STATE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN 1843.

Number of Colleges. Royal,	46	
" " Communal,	312	
Number of Scholars in Colleges		
Number of Institutions of Secondary Education,		
" Boarding Schools " "		
" Private Establishments " "		
" Public and Private " " "		
Number of Scholars in the Institutions which follow the course of a College,	6,066	
Number of Scholars in the Institutions which do not follow the course of a College,	25,250	
Number of Secondary Pupils,		
Population of the Departments, 1842,		3
Proportion in each Department between the population and the total number of establishments of Secondary Education,	1 estab.	
Number of Scholars in establishments of Secondary Education,	1 "	
Number of Young Men between eight and eighteen in each Department,		
Proportion between the total number of Young Men between eight and eighteen, and the total number of pupils in Secondary Establishments in each Department,	1 school for 45 you	

CONDITION OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION IN THE DEPARTMENT OF TARN, DURING THE SCHOOL YEAR 1849-50.

THE most satisfactory insight into the practical working and actual results of a school system, can be obtained, not by looking to any general summary applicable to the whole State, but to the operations in detail, of a particular school, or of the schools of a neighborhood, or of some of the larger and yet subordinate divisions of the State. For this purpose we select for publication a report on the condition of primary education, by M. A. Domergue, the governmental inspector for the department of Tarn—one of the 86 territorial and civil divisions of the State. Tarn belongs to the old province of Languedoc, and in 1850 had a population of 330,000, distributed through 79 arrondisements, 20 cantons, and 300 communes. In 1828, when M. Charles Dupin projected his intellectual map of France, the department of Tarn was represented by a black spot, to indicate its low state as to schools and education. The report does not cover the whole ground, but shows the progress which has been made in one of the most backward portions of France since the new system went into operation.

Primary instruction includes the elementary and superior, the communal and private schools. Some of these are attended exclusively by boys, some by girls, and some by infants, while others are *common** schools; that is, attended by both boys and girls. There are also classes for adults, a primary normal school for masters, and another for schoolmistresses.

BOYS' SCHOOLS.

There are altogether in the *department* 309 communal and 40 private schools. This gives a total increase of 8 schools over the year 1848. But there have been at the same time an increase of communal and a decrease of private schools. This result is doubly advantageous; for, with few exceptions, the public schools are superior to private schools, both as regards instruction and discipline.

With respect to the *mode of instruction*, the 349 boys' schools are thus divided:—Schools directed according to the mutual mode, 12; simultaneous, 261; individual, 21; mixed† mode, 55; total, 349. This last mode is the best that can be employed in the schools which have more than 50 pupils; it demands, on the part of the master, indefatigable zeal, but it gives, in exchange, most beneficial results.

There are 314 schools exclusively devoted to Roman Catholics, and 18 to Protestants, whilst 17 schools receive children belonging to both. The directors of these 17 schools are all Roman Catholics.

Civil State of the Teachers.—Of the 349 instructors, 336 are laymen, and 13 belong to religious societies. There are also employed in the schools 49 assistant-brothers. Of the 336 lay teachers, 117 are bachelors, 196 are married, and 23 are widowers.

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*Schools where boys and girls are taught together, are generally termed in this country *mixed schools*. Common schools are *public* schools in our school nomenclature.

†This is a combination of the *mutual* and the *simultaneous*.

Number of Pupils, &c.—The communal schools receive 11,882 bo
private schools, 1,981; in all, 13,863. If to this number we add 217 b
attend the *common schools*, we shall have a total of 14,080 boys, thus sho
increase of 807 over the year 1848.

Besides the 13,863 boys admitted into the 349 schools, there are als
by the masters of the common schools, 1,234 girls.

Of the 14,080 boys, 7,943 pay a school fee, which varies from fivep
twenty pence a month; 6,137 are instructed gratuitously. The number
tuitous pupils it is hoped will increase; for the 24th article of the law of
March, 1850, states that "*primary instruction ought to be given gratui*
all children of those families who are not in a condition to pay for
struction."

Moral and Political Conduct of the Teachers.—The conduct of our
tors is generally very good. With some exceptions, happily few in numb
have all learned that they ought to confine themselves exclusively to the d
of the duties belonging to their profession, and not to engage in politica
nicipal discussions.

We can not speak so satisfactorily of the capacity of our teachers.
those who have been educated at the Normal School, and whose schools
superior order, there are a hundred instructors who were *breveted* imm
after the promulgation of the law of June 28th, 1833. These know, in
very little; they are ignorant of good methods of teaching, and their sch
conducted with little order and regularity. But they have rendered servi
although they are not at the top of their profession, yet it would be u
hurry on their superannuation.* The law which assures to instructors
mum salary of 600 francs ($125,) will enable us to demand of them m
and assiduity. They will not require to seek, in labors foreign to their pr
an increase of pay to assure the daily existence of themselves and their
But 19-20ths of the instructors of this department will not be able to clai
than the fixed minimum allowance. It is to be regretted that we can
means of salaries increasing progressively in proportion to the services per
excite the emulation of teachers and establish a system of promotion advan
to the cause of education.

GIRLS' SCHOOLS.

There are in the department 54 communal and 163 private schoolmi
The increase on 1848 is 18 in number.

The communal schools receive 3,669, and the private schools 5,662 pu
all 9,331. When compared with the numbers attending school in 1848,
a decrease of 151 pupils. If we add to the above number 1,234 girls
taught in the common schools, we shall have a total number of 10,565
ceiving elementary instruction.

Of the 9,331 who are taught by schoolmistresses, 6,674 pay, and 2,
educated gratuitously.

Of the 1,234 who attend the common schools,† 941 pay, and 293 rece
tuitous instruction.

The communal masters alone receive pupils who pay nothing; the
teachers receive none. All the schoolmistresses, on the contrary, wheth
munal or private, admit gratuitously a great number of children.

There is no need to direct your attention to the fact, that the zeal and th
tion of our schoolmistresses are not sufficiently recompensed. Every one
convinced of the salutary influence which the education of females exercis
the morality of a country. We ought, therefore, to find some means of p
rewarding our schoolmistresses for the eminent services which they have re
It is necessary, above all, to encourage the establishment of girls' schools, i
to diminish, as much as possible, the number of *mixed schools*, which, in
the most careful superintendence, present results most unfavorable. As
of the low estimation in which these *mixed* schools are held, take the fo
facts:--In those *communes* which possess a *girls'* school, the mean nun

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* By a recent law a retiring pension is granted to teachers in proportion to their l
service.

† These common or mixed schools are conducted by *masters*.

pupils attending is 64 per *commune;* whereas, in the communes having no girls' school, but, on the contrary, a *boys'* school open to girls, the mean number is reduced to nine.

There are 189 communes entirely without schoolmistresses; that is to say, in 189 communes of the department the girls are either wholly deprived of instruction, or receive an education which, from being given by a man, is not at all in harmony with the duties imposed upon the sex by society.

From these considerations, I have the honor of proposing to you to ask of the general council the sum of 2000 francs, to be appropriated thus—1000 francs among private schoolmistresses, many of whom find it difficult to live, and 1000 francs to be divided among the poorest of the communes which shall make sacrifices to establish communal schools for girls.*

Children attending the Schools.—Out of 1000 inhabitants, 68 children, on an average, attend the primary schools. In 1839, there were only 55 out of 1000: the progress, then, is real. We are, however, below the average which, for the whole of France, is about 92 in 1000; while some of the departments, such as that of Doubs, count 176 pupils out of every 1000 inhabitants. The number of children between 6 and 14 years of age, who do not actually attend the primary schools, may be reckoned at 20,000. Many of these have already left school, carrying with them notions the most imperfect, which they will very soon completely forget. The great majority are condemned to absolute ignorance.

School Houses.—The law of 28th June, 1833, compels communes to provide suitable buildings which shall serve both as school-rooms for the children, and dwelling-houses for the masters. The law of 15th March, 1850, has preserved this obligation. Communes are also advised to become the owners of school-houses; and in 1848 they possessed 86 school-houses, while at the present day they have 99. About 15 new school-houses may be reckoned which shall be completed during the next year. Every where, in the course of my inspection, I have ascertained that *the places rented by the communes to serve as schools and teachers' residences are unhealthy, badly ventilated, insufficiently lighted, inconvenient, and inadequate; whilst some are in a completely dilapidated condition.*

Purchase of Books for the Poor.—Rural schools are entirely without good books. Poverty prevents many parents from purchasing such books as are necessary for their children, or it makes them select, not those which the teacher indicates to them, but those which itinerant booksellers sell them at a very small cost. Serious inconveniences result from this state of things. I believe that it is necessary to provide in the *budget* a grant of 500 francs for the purchase of books for poor scholars.

Assistance to Old and Infirm Teachers.—The aged instructors have spent their strength in the career of primary instruction—an office, up to the present time, so badly remunerated. They are now worn out, and will suffer all the horrors of poverty, unless the department render them assistance. I solicit for them an allowance of 500 francs. This sum will annually diminish, and, finally, will disappear from the departmental budget; since the new law in reference to education assures to instructors a retiring pension in proportion to a duration of their services.

Infant Schools.—The department contains 9 infant schools for boys and girls, containing a total of 1001 children.

Normal School.—The excellent condition of this establishment continues to deserve the praises which have been bestowed on it by the general council of the department, the academic authorities, and the general Inspectors of the University.

The satisfactory results which it is permitted me to state, are owing to the unbounded devotion and untiring zeal of the director of the school; to the strict discipline which he maintains with vigor; to his constant presence at all the exercises of the house; to the religious punctuality which is every where manifest, and which is the best precept on order and regularity which it is possible to give to our future instructors.

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* Every commune is obliged by law to support at least one primary school, either of its own, or in conjunction with neighboring communes.

The normal school has rendered immense service to the country: it h
us our best instructors; it has raised, to a considerable extent, the love of
instruction; thanks to it, above all, should M. Charles Dupin trace out a
intellectual map of France, we shall behold the *black spot* disappear b
the illustrious statistician had stigmatized the department of Tarn.

Since 1833 the normal school has produced 174 instructors; of these
communal teachers, and 9 are about to become so; 1 is assistant maste
normal school; 3 are private instructors; 27 have left the profession;
died in the exercise of their duties; total 174 who have obtained their
leaving the school.

The teachers who have come from the normal school are infinitely su
their colleagues. They are superior by their capacity—by their faithful
ances of rules—and, almost always, by their zeal, and by their conduct
the local authorities and the heads of families. In the course of my ins
I have been constantly struck with the marked difference which exists
the teachers who have been educated at a normal school and those w
not been in any special way prepared for the duties of instruction. Peo
take of my convictions, in this respect; and normal students are always
in preference to other candidates, by local committees and municipal cou

Normal School for Females.—The opinion which I have formerly e
of the importance which I attach to the good education of girls, will, I
sufficient to make you appreciate the strong desire which I have for the
uance of exhibitions for female candidates. The normal school is in e
condition, and the results obtained are satisfactory. At the last examina
of 13 who presented themselves, 3 were *breveted* with the numbers 2, 4

Such is a faithful and impartial account of the state of primary instru
the department of Tarn. I have endeavored to give, by figures obtain
authentic sources, the results due to the law of 28th June, 1833, and at t
time to establish the starting-point of the law of 15th March, 1850; s
may be easy, at a later period, to estimate the benefits which the departm
have derived from it.

SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTIONS

OF

SPECIAL INSTRUCTION IN FRANCE.

In addition to the regular institutions for primary, secondary, and superior instruction, which belong to the supervision of the Minister of Public Instruction, there are a number of schools of the class preparatory for the pursuits of life, which are assigned by law to other departments of the government. The Polytechnic School, the Military School of St. Cyr, and the Military College of Fleche, are assigned to the Minister of War; the School of Roads and Bridges, the two Schools of Mines, one at Paris and the other at St. Etienne, to the Minister of Public Works; the Model Farm Schools, the District Schools of Agriculture, and the National Agronomic Institute at Versailles, the School of Arts and Manufactures at Paris, Châlons, Angers, and Aix, to the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce; the Naval Schools at Brest and L'Orient, to the Minister of the Marine; the Conservatory of Arts and Manufactures, and of Music, to the Minister of the Interior. These schools properly belong to the division of superior instruction, which is not embraced, except in a general view, in the plan of this Report, but as they are intended to complete the course of studies begun in the higher schools and academies of our systems of public instruction, and as they furnish useful hints, both as to studies and their applications, for similar institutions in this country, whether public or private, an account of several of the most important of this class, will be given.

France is better supplied with schools of special instruction and voluntary and incorporated societies for the promotion of literature, science, and the arts, as well as with various forms of active philanthrophy, than any other country in Europe. The stimulus given to the universal mind of France, by the political revolutions which have changed the whole face of modern society, while it has made elementary education more general and active, has also given progress to higher studies, and great scientific undertakings.

In addition to 36 learned societies in Paris, recognized and aided by governmental grants—besides a multitude of others unchartered and but little known either to one another, or the public—there were in 1851, in the departments of France 189 learned societies, besides twelve archeological commissions, seventy-eight agricultural associations, and seven hundred commercial societies, to promote the application of science to industry. These associations generally feel the impulse described by Lamartine in his address to his colleagues of the Academy of Literature and Science at Maçon: "You have felt, gentlemen, that knowledge is

yours only on the condition that you diffuse it; and to raise the lo
elevate the high. Around you all is progressing. Will yo
alone? Will you suffer yourselves to be overtaken? No; men of
or rather workmen—workmen of thought and science, it is for
the first to participate in the movement. In a state of civilizatio
intelligence gives power, rank is maintained only by the mainte
moral superiority; when the intellectual order is deranged, dis
not far off."

There were in 1850, one hundred and sixty-six towns in Fr
which there were public libraries, containing 5,510,295 volumes;
libraries, one hundred and nine contained over 10,000 volumes e

The following summary of the grants comprised in the French
of 1847, as voted by the chambers, exhibits the comprehensive
ter of the aid extended by the government to educational, liter
entific, and artistic purposes.

A.—*In the Department of Public Instruction.*

I. Central Administration and to aid institutions of special instruction, such as schools for idiots, the blind deaf mutes, &c., ... $

II. University of France—including schools of primary, secondary, and superior education, ... 2

III. Literature and science—including libraries in Paris and the provinces, museums of natural history, the institute of France, &c., ...

B.—*In the Department of the Interior.*

Schools of design, and the fine arts, ...

C.—*In the Department of Public Works.*

Buildings connected with science, and the arts, . .

$4

The above sum is exclusive of special grants in aid of schoo
riculture, commerce, and manufactures, or of charitable instit
which agricultural and mechanical instruction was given, or of
tures for the galleries of the Louvre, Luxembourg, and Ve
amounting to at least another million.

The following survey of the Industrial Instruction of F
abridged from an article in the *Revue des deux mondes*, for 185
Amphori, entitled, "The intellectual movement among the
classes."

In the scheme of institutions devoted to this special instruction, the
belong to the conservatory of arts and trades at Paris. This great esta
performs a twofold duty; it collects models, designs or descriptions of
instruments, apparatus, and mechanical tools, and gives public lessons upon
ematical and physical sciences as applied in the arts. The first idea of th
vatory was conceived in the reign of Louis XVI., by a famous mech
seemed to have even drawn from the very sources of life, wherewith
marvellous mechanisms. The idea of Vaucanson, legislated upon in the y
(1794,) the revolutionary era, was not realized until the year VI. (179
that time, the conservatory has followed the developments of the national

and its methods of action have been increased in number, with reference to its double purpose. It now includes four departments; the collections of machines, &c., a technological library, a department for higher instruction, and a small practical elementary school.*

The galleries filled with precious material treasures, form what may be called the archives of the industrial arts. These collections are annually increased, and now fill thirteen galleries.

The department of higher instruction was established about the commencement of the restoration. Up to 1817, there had been at the conservatory only a designer and three demonstrators, who gave advice and explanations to those who come to ask for them. These accommodations, however, remained nearly useless to the public. The regular courses were of more value, as also were those commenced in 1819, upon geometry applied to the arts, industrial chemistry, and industrial economy. Besides these three chairs, others were erected, under the government of July, of industrial mechanics, descriptive geometry, chemistry applied to the arts, industrial legislation, agriculture, and the ceramic arts. The situation of the institution in the midst of a populous neighborhood, furnishes to its lectures an auditory composed chiefly of working men. It is the merit of these lectures, that they are clear, simple, intelligible to all, and susceptible of immediate practical application. Theory is explained in close contact with practice. The workmen, eager to learn, crowd to these lessons; they hasten thither from the workshops every evening. A most favorable indication is given by the admirable order which reigns throughout this audience in blouses, bestowed in an immense amphitheater, and often overcrowded. Every one is silent and attentive. There is no instance there of the indecorums so frequent in institutions giving a higher order of instruction.

The library of the conservatory of arts and trades is appropriated to the members of the institution. It is distinguished by a fine collection of French and foreign scientific works; and contains much which may afford valuable information to practical men in the various branches of industrial art. The lower school, founded under the empire, may be regarded as a primary school of explained labor, (industrie raisonnée.) Its three courses, of descriptive and elementary geometry, of mechanical and architectural design, and of industrial design, are attended by from a hundred and fifty to two hundred pupils.

The conservatory of arts and trades, as at present constituted, contains very valuable elements of industrial instruction. Workmen, foremen, chiefs of establishments, children of mechanics and laborers, come thither to obtain an instruction which shall enlighten their career of labor.

The three schools of arts and trades, at Châlons, Angers, and Aix, dependent, like the conservatory, directly upon the State, are devoted more especially to practical instruction. The eldest, that at Châlons, established for a little while at Compiègne, was erected by a decree of the consular government of the year XI. The second, created in 1811, was placed by the imperial government at Beaupréau, in the middle of La Vendée, to become a new center of activity for that ignorant neighborhood. The third dates only from 1843. The schools of arts and trades are intended to train skillful workmen. Each of them is divided into four workshops; the blacksmiths', the foundry, the finishers', and the carpenters'. To the three establishments of Châlons, Angers, and Aix, are appropriated for 1851, $200,200; but deduct from this the sums received by paying scholars, and from the sale of articles manufactured, and the net expense to the treasury amounts only to about $120,000.

Official estimates show that more than half the pupils leaving go into business, as finishers, founders, blacksmiths, machinists, or carpenters. And numbers of the others are employed in the department of roads and bridges, as overseers or conductors; draftsmen in machine shops, or as architects. The schools of arts and bridges also contribute a remarkably large proportion of the machinists, &c., for the public steamers. Thus, within the last seven years, have been employed more than a hundred graduates of these schools, as foremen or firemen. As to the proportions of theory and practice in the instruction, it is enough to say that the pupils pass seven hours and a half daily in the workshops, and only fi and a half daily in classes and in the apartments for design. The profe rigorously obliged, in their lessons, to take the most usual point of view ; which the pupil can best see how to use the knowledge he acquires. S vote was substituted for ministerial selection of professors, two years a courses of instruction have been so arranged as to drop out those theoret tlemen who are unable to do what they teach.

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* The appropriation to the conservatory in 1851, was $30,000; $18,168 for salaries, and the remainder for other purposes.

The principal advantage of these schools is not, in our opinion, the dir ence which they exert upon the national industry. The two hundred pupils or thereabout who leave them every year, are scarcely the thousan of the workmen who grow up in France during the same time; but the show a style of instruction which serves as a model for comparison. Th carry into private workshops theoretical knowledge which they could no there, and which is most useful in the explanation of practical labor. A yet imperfect workmen, they improve more rapidly than the others, and become excellent foremen. Although we know that among some foreign habits supply the place of institutions, among us, these schools will stimula our untoward habits. They have another destination, of higher importan may become seminaries of professors for the industrial instruction which th try waits to see organized, and for which we are now endeavoring to p way. Once improved by the practical training of the private workshops an factories, the best pupils of these schools will become most useful in the ment of this special instruction ; which needs a body of instructors adap peculiar needs.

An institution established at Paris, the central school of arts and manu also helps the accomplishment of this same work. The similar nature o structions alone justifies the assistance granted it by government, which upon it a sort of public character.* During an existence of twenty years, tral school has fully justified the expectations of its founders, it is devote education of civil engineers, directors of machine-shops, and chiefs of ma ries. Besides the four principal courses studied, the mechanic arts, the c arts, metullurgy and architecture, it instructs its pupils in all the pursuits o trial labor. Since chemistry has left laboratories to enter workshops and fect there the results of manufacturing processes; since the physical wo been searched for the means of employing heat and steam, which have such powerful agents of production, industry has ceased to be abandoned piricism. Every manufacture has asked from science methods quicker, su more economical. The central school satisfies this demand. By phys chemical study, it prepares pupils expressly for the direction of industri just as the polytechnic school, by the study of mathematical science, a seminary for the department of public works, and for some other professions.

Under these institutions, which have a general character, may be rank institutions which we will term local. These may be divided, in respect destination, into two great classes ; one, consisting of those whose desig instruct in the applications of some one science to the industrial arts ; other, of those which confine their instruction to the practice of an art o or to the collaterial knowledge necessary to exercise it. To estimate the a fluence of both, they must be considered in the place where they exist.

In the northern section, where manfacturing industry reigns supreme, only the arts of design as applied to arts and trades, gratuitously taugh schools of design established in most of the important towns, are gene recent creation. The oldest date from the restoration or from the empire that three or four, have an earlier origin. For instance, the school of Arra some instruction is given, which relates partly to industrial occupatio founded by the states-general of Artois, in 1775 ; that of St. Omer in 17 that of Calais in 1787. These institutions are every where much valued the working classes. Some of them contain classes of as many as a hund fifty pupils. Some of them are particularly for children, but most for

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* The State allows the central school an annual sum of \$6,000, which is distribute didates (for prizes) by a vote.

Architectural design and practical geometry, as applied to cutting stone, wood, &c., are often among the studies. In all that populous district which extends from the Belgian frontier to the western extremity of Normandy, and contains such manufacturing metropolises as Rouen and Lille, there are only two small institutions which really have the character of industrial schools. One is at Dieppe; it is a school for lace-making and open-stitch for young girls. It was founded during the restoration, and increased during the government of July. It receives about three hundred pupils, and while giving them a primary school course of instruction, it also instructs them in an occupation. It has exercised a favorable influence upon the lace manufacture; there has been organized in connection with it, a boarding department, where some poor girls are supported gratuitously, and educated to become skillful work-women and assistant teachers. The other institutions situated at Mesnières, in the *arrondissement* of Rouen, receives about sixty orphan boys, and trains them for business in workshops appropriate for different trades. Some local societies, as the society of workmen at St. Quentin, &c., endeavor to instruct the laboring classes in some occupations.

In our eastern departments, the domain of industrial instruction is less confined. There are there some schools, some technic institutions, for the working classes. The schools of design are more numerous than in the north, and are more decidedly directed towards manufactures. The manufacturers of Switzerland, Germany, and England, have more than once had upon their fabrics the marks of the designers, engravers, and colorists, trained in the gratuitous schools of the Haut-Rhin. Some schools of design of rather wider scope, do great service to industry. Among these may be especially mentioned the school of Saint-Etiènne, where are intructed all the designers employed in the neighboring manufactories, and in particular by the ribbon-makers, who are so very jealous about the good taste of these articles of ornament. Besides instruction in design, there are given from time to time public courses of instruction, established and supported by the towns, and particularly elementary courses in chemistry, in mechanics. physics and mathematics, such as may furnish the workingmen with an intelligent understanding of their profession. Among the cities which enjoy to some extent instruction of this sort, may be mentioned Metz, Mulhouse, Colmar, Bar-le-Duc, Besançon, Rheims, Nancy, Dijon, Rive-de-Gièr, Langres, &c. These institutions are sometimes the results of individual effort; thus, at Besançon, a private citizen founded in 1829 a public and free course of study upon mathematics as connected with the arts. At Bar-le-Duc, industrial courses were established by an association of subscribers, and were taken charge of by the commune. Local societies, among which the industrial society at Mulhouse is first in influence and resources, have increased the local activity. and give the initiative to the population in general. In Sémur, a small town of the Côte-d'-Or, a private society. Some manufacturers have imitated this example; for instance, in the great establishment of Guebwiller (Haut-Rhin) gratuitous lessons are given to the operatives in linear design, geometry, and machinery.

There are also in the east of France, several institutions devoted more exclusively to special purposes. The most important, whose regulations are worthy of most attention, are at Lyons, Strasbourg, Nancy, and Saint-Etiènne. Lyons stands first, both for population and manufacturing wealth. Besides the Lamartine school, in which are given instructions in mechanics, physics, chemistry, and design, and also a course in the manufacture of cloth, a number of private institutions give practical instruction in loom-weaving, and the theory of the decomposition of cloth, (décomposition des étoffes;) they instruct also how to set up looms after any required pattern. Instruction is also given in making patterns, in designing for woven fabrics, and in keeping accounts for workshops. These lessons, as will be observed, go to the heart of the industry of Lyons. It is only to be wished that it were more liberally dispensed; and that the city would make it gratuitous. Lyons has also schools for teaching designing of figures, stone-cutting, and several schools of design for journeymen carpenters; but it is to be regretted that payment is necessary for admission to them. Strasbourg has a well organized school of design, maintained by the commune. The practical instruction given there, besides elementary theoretic instruction in mathematical and physical science, includes iron-work at forge and vise, turning, carpentry, lithography, and chemical manipulations. In selecting the workshop for a pupil, reference is had to his tastes and aptitudes. At Nancy

there has been for several years established a "house for apprentices"
tirely new plan. The results have been considered deserving of encou
by the council-general of the department of the Meurthe. The apprentic
family, and call one another brother. Infractions of rules are determine
a tribunal composed of all those apprentices who have obtained a certai
of good marks. A good mark is given by vote of all the pupils. The
consist of a system of reparations founded upon the nature of each fau
one who breaks silence when silence is ordered, is condemned to keep si
permitted to break it. If two apprentices quarrel, they must embrace a
companions at play for a set time. The pupils of this establishment la
workshops established in it, and attend the communal schools to receiv
instruction. At Saint-Etienne, a school of mines is intended to furnish
of mines, and directors of explorations and mineralogical workshops.
struction is gratuitous, workmen may attend the school to be taught mi

In the department of Doubs, a practical school of horology was founde
at Morteau, for the purpose of preserving and increasing the beautiful e
which is important to the labor of that section. In the leisure of wint
so long among the mountains, the farmers, shut in so much by the sno
other means of occupying their time. The town of Besançon, the d
even the supreme government, had encouraged the establishment of th
Morteau, which seemed to promise great success; but different causes
minished the demand for the clocks from Doubs, the school, after havi
done some good, was forced to be closed. Similar institutions have b
to support themselves at Dijon and Maçon. The departments and tow
have afforded them a more liberal support. The same may be said of
another species, for mounting looms, established at Rheims by a local
which skillful mounters and weavers had already been trained, but
ished for lack of funds.

In this same region, at one of the most ignorant points of the departn
Meurthe, a project is being put in execution to which we wish the be
It is intended to establish a special school for a branch of industry to whi
humble, a considerable population is confined. The inhabitants of th
munes of the ancient county of Dabo, at the foot of the Vosges, which
with France only in 1801, have no other means of gaining a living
forest-rights in the public forests, and the execution of carefully carved
Their hereditary industry, remaining absolutely stationary, has become
by other products of the same kind, and commerce gradually refuses t
projected school is designed to instruct these unskillful turners in meth
more suited to existing tastes and demands. Instruction will be given
playthings and domestic utensils, such as those made in Switzerland
Black Forest. In order to have some chances of success, it will be n
instruct the young, and not the adult workmen, whose traditional habi
be difficult to alter. These latter, having been exclusively employe
coarse work, would find it very difficult to acquire delicacy of hand.
proviso, the plan of the founders of this school appears excellent; when
ceeded, it will be another good example of what our eastern departmen
in the way of industrial instruction.

The southern section of France is not so favored in this respect; it
similar aspect to the northern. Schools of linear design of trade, arch
decoration, existing at Marseilles, Avignon, Montauban, Digne, Aude,
Tarbes, Grasse, &c., a few courses of instruction in three or four towns
ments of chemistry, of physics, of mechanics, of geometry, are almost t
stitutions for industrial instruction. The town of Nismes alone is bette
perhaps there is not in all France another city where special instructi
on so extended a scale. A course of design for manufactures embraces
in damasked and in stamped flowers. Another course of geometrical d
pletes the knowledge which the children have received in the elementa
The instruction in chemistry comprehends lessons in dyeing, an import
of local industry. Admission to all the classes is free. A school of we
ing from 1836, is liberally opened for theoretic and practical instruc
manufacture of cloths. The theory is of the processes employed both i
and in plain stuffs; the practice consists in the actual weaving of the c

loom. The town furnishes the tools, machines, and raw material, necessary for the work. By explaining the art of weaving in two aspects, this school has had an excellent influence upon the manufactures of Nismes. It was only necessary to endeavor to gather into it as many foremen and workmen as possible. In this same department, of the Gard, at Alais, has been established a school of master-miners. The instruction has not so high a character or purpose as that at Saint-Etienne, at least in that part of the course designed for directors of machine-shops. The practical exercises consist in drawing plans both of the surface of the ground and of the mines, and in mining in the mines of pit-coal about Alais. The pupils also practice blacksmithing, wagon-making, and carpentry. Admission is not free, and scarcely any pupils are expected except those maintained by some department, or by some of the coal companies.

In our western departments the two large cities of Bordeaux and Nantes are the only ones which have paid much attention to special instruction. In the capital of ancient Guyenne, in 1834 and 1835, the municipal council founded public and gratuitous courses of instruction in industrial chemistry, mathematics and mechanics, as applied to arts and trades. The chamber of commerce also, a rich and active body, established in 1843 a course of chemistry and natural history. A private society called the philomathic society, whose assistance has often been valuable to the laboring population of Bordeaux, has for six years defrayed the expense of special instruction; the practical part of which consists in linear design and instruction about the steam-engine. At Nantes, besides that the town maintains a free school of design, founded in 1789, there is a private society known as the industrial society, whose efforts for young workmen are now appreciated throughout France, which is at the head of the industrial training of the masses. It receives from the commune, the department, and the State, assistance which is increased by private subscriptions. The workmen are counted by hundreds, whose first steps it has guided in the rude career of labor. The object of this society is two-fold; to give its pupils instruction carefully adapted to their condition, and to arrange for their apprenticeship in different trades.

La Rochelle and Brest have also made some efforts to introduce industrial education in the west of France. At La Rochelle, was established in 1844 a theoretic course in ship-building; at Brest, a society called the society of emulation endeavors to instruct in linear design, in drawing plans, &c. In this part of France, all children, not merely of those of easy circumstances, but of all who are not altogether too poor, attend, without exception, the classical schools. They are often interrupted in their studies, by the inability of their parents to bear their prolonged expenses, and rarely succeed in reducing to practice, even at a late period, the imperfect education they receive. Families unable to send their sons to the high school, content themselves with the ordinary instruction. The idea of special instruction is scarcely a germ in this soil, which seems ungenial to it. Nowhere is the word "professional" applied to instruction in a narrower or falser sense.

The center of France, excepting the department of the Seine, whose establishments deserve a distinct notice, is scarcely less ill supplied than the west. Most of the departments are destitute of graded (sérieux) establishments also. Schools of linear design, or of design more or less applicable to industry, exist only at great distances. There are, however, a few institutions in which some practical instruction is given. For instance, the prytanæum of Menars, established in 1832 in the department of the Loire and Cher, and recently reopened after having been some time shut, is devoted to industrial studies. The plan of the institution is similar to that of our schools of arts and trades, but unfortunately has not as great resources at command. The city of Tours has established a course in physics and chemistry, but it has not been organized upon a sufficiently wide basis to attract many auditors. At Limoges, the municipal council and the agricultural society, by uniting their efforts, have done much good by means of public and free lessons, in geometry, mechanics, design, modeling, and stereotomy. In the Haute-Loire, Le Puy received the gift of a free industrial school from private subscriptions, the town paying its annual expenses. This institution, though less complete than that of Strasbourg, is constructed upon the same model, and accommodates a hundred children of workmen. There are some special courses at Le Puy also; but the practical applications of science are not brought out there. In the department of

the Corrèze, though small and unkindly treated by nature, we see with p
at Tulle, a free school of mechanical geometry. Linear design is applied
the drawing of figures and of machines, to stone cutting, carpentry, and archi

At the other extremity of the central section, in the department of th
whose riches and activity contrast singularly with the nakedness and simp
the country we are leaving, have been united most of the means of indus
struction which are scattered here and there over the surface of France.
nevertheless, contains nothing comparable with the school of weaving at
with the private institutions for teaching weaving at Lyons, with the
schools of arts and trades at Châlons, Angers, and Aix. We seek there
for an organized system of practical instruction, provided with all resource
sary to meet the public demand. All the establishments of this class i
except the national conservatory of arts and trades, may be classed in two di
one appropriated to those in easy circumstances, or who can pay a mon
the other gratuitous, and therefore accessible to the working population. In
mer class are the Chaptal municipal college and the Turgot school, in
which there is a department of industrial teaching; several schools prepa
the school of arts and trades; schools of architecture, horology, &c. Fr
present point of view, the latter class calls for our especial attention. The
of public establishments included in it is inconsiderable. Besides the sma
of the conservatory, there are hardly any other than free classes in indus
sign. Design for woven stuffs does not occupy so prominent a place as i
the artistic element of design is preponderant, which will not be surprising
is known that by a singularity of which our administration affords more
example, these schools are altogether separate from the department of co
and under the direction of that of the fine arts.

In the vast field for industrial instruction among the working classes,
cipal burden has fallen upon private institutions established by charity or b
mic foresight. In the immense gulf of the capital, the action of these e
ments does not appear to the indifferent, or to those immersed in busin
though silent and almost unknown, they are a valuable help to the unfortu
to the helpless, and very profitable to the community. The institution for
tices in the city of Paris, under the direction of M. Armand de Melun,
to labor, from the pavements of the city and from garrets and misery, a
children who would otherwise have hastened to populate the prisons. W
instructors train their minds by primary instruction, and seek to inspire ri
timents into their hearts, they are gradually prepared for the actual li
awaits them. Another institution, that of Saint-Nicolas, receives several
pupils in two establishments, one at Paris and the other at Issy. Its j
directors mingle a proper amount of elementary instruction with manu
Unfortunately the limited resources of this establishment do not permit it to
a very great variety of instruction. Other similar institutions are ente
same course. The work-rooms for girls are actual industrial schools for
feeble and exposed portion of the laboring population, and that needing m
There are also in Paris small school for apprentices, established almost en
the contributions of foremen for poor orphans. Such enterprises are w
judicious encouragement by the municipal council.

Other public and gratuitous courses of study, founded by private societ
different designs and by different means, are assisting to disseminate tech
struction among the workmen. When a man has some property, and is
way to fill a useful place in society and to gain his own living, instructio
kind, carefully adapted to his requirements, dealing with fact rather th
theory, simple, and appealing to the good sense of the masses, is likely to
excellent moral effects. I do not say that all these qualifications actual
some additions and retrenchments are necessary. The philosophic senti
the great task of industrial improvement for the masses is not clearly brou
and the conditions of true practical instruction are often not fulfilled. Y
honorable individual efforts have been made in this direction. They ha
duced real good, and merit effective encouragement from the Parisian m
authority.

HISTORY

OF

NORMAL SCHOOLS IN FRANCE.

THE earliest movement towards the professional training of teachers was made in France by the Abbe de Lasalle, while canon of the Cathedral at Rheims, in 1681, and perfected, in his training school for his Institute of the Brothers of the Christian Schools, in 1684.

In 1794, by an ordinance of the National Convention a normal school was established at Paris to furnish professors for colleges and the higher seminaries. The institution was projected on a scale beyond the preparation which its earliest pupils could bring, and beyond the wants to be supplied. The instruction was mainly by lectures, which were delivered by Lagrange, Laplace, Sicard, Laharpe, and other distinguished teachers and men of science. The experiment was abandoned in 1795, and not resumed till 1808, when Napoleon re-established the school in the ordinance creating the "Imperial University of France." It has since been maintained for the purpose of training a class of pupils for professorships in the colleges and secondary schools.

In 1810 the first seminary designed for teachers of elementary schools, was established at Strasbourg, through the liberality of Count de Lezai Marnesia, and the co-operation of the Rector of the Academy, and the prefect of the department of the Lower Rhine. It opened in 1811 as a "Normal class of primary school teachers." No pupil was admitted who was under sixteen years of age, or over thirty, or who was not acquainted with the studies pursued in elementary schools. The course embraced four years, and included as wide and thorough range of studies as is now required in the best Normal Schools of France. The number of pupils was limited to sixty, and those who enjoyed the benefit of a bourse, or scholarship, came under obligation to teach at least ten years in the schools of the department. Those scholarships were founded partly by individual liberality, and partly by the department, and by the communes, which sent candidates to the school. Under the organization established in 1810, with such modifications as experience suggested, this school has continued to exert a powerful influence on the cause of popular education through that section of France, and it now ranks not only as the oldest, but one of the best in Europe. The department of Upper Rhine, witnessing the results of this experiment in the neighboring communes, appropriated six thousand francs to found scholarships, for the benefit of a certain number of candidates in the seminary at Strasbourg. According to a Report of M. Guizot to the King, in 1833, it appears that the state of primary education in the two departments constituting the Acad-

emy of Strasbourg, was far in advance of any other section of F
Good schools were more numerous; fewer communes were destit
schools; and the slow and defective method of individual instructio
given place to more lively and simultaneous methods of class instr
"In all respects the superiority of the popular schools is striking, a
conviction of the people is as general that this superiority is main
to the existence of this Normal School."

The establishment of two Normal Schools for the departments o
selle and Meuse, in 1820, was followed by the same results,—the
lishment of schools in communes before destitute, and the improv
of schools already in operation, by the introduction of better metho
1828 a new impulse was given to educational improvement by
spirited individuals and teachers' associations in Paris, and other p
France, which led to the establishment of a fourth Normal School
department of Vosges, and a fifth in that of Meuth. About th
time a Normal course of instruction was opened in the college of C
ville, for the department of Ardennes, and the foundations of s
Normal Schools were laid at Dijon, Orleans, and Bourges, as we
Training School for the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine at Roue
the close of 1829, there were thirteen Normal Schools in operation.
movement already commenced, received a new impulse in the right
tion by the Revolution of 1830, which in this respect was as benefi
the Revolution of 1791 was disastrous. In the three years imme
following the change of dynasty in 1830, thirty-four new Normal S
were established in different sections of France, and wherever the
established they contributed to the opening of primary schools i
munes before destitute, and of diffusing a knowledge of better m
among teachers who did not resort to these seminaries. But th
auspicious event was the publication of M. Cousin's "*Report on t
dition of Public Instruction in several of the States of Germany, an
cially in Prussia,*" in 1832. A considerable portion of this repo
devoted to an account of the best Normal Schools of Prussia, and
most emphatic recommendation of the same policy in France. T
lowing valuable suggestions were made on this subject, most of
were subsequently embodied in the Law of Primary Instruction, a
Regulations of the Minister relating to Normal Schools.

"I have already remarked, that as every *commune* must have
mary school, so every department must have its primary Normal
If the same law which shall render the former imperative on th
munes, should render the latter equally imperative on the depar
we should have made a great advance. If the law does not go s
that, you must at all events come at the same results by adminis
measures; you must require every council-general of a depa
through the medium of the prefect, to vote funds for the establish
a primary Normal School, under condition of binding yourself to c
ute a greater or less portion of the total expenditure, and to tak

yourself, 1. the salary of the director, whom you would nominate; 2. the books, maps, and instruments necessary for the use of the students. It must be laid down as a principle, that every department must have its Normal School; but that school should be proportioned to the extent and the wealth of the department, and it may, with equal propriety, be small in one and large in another. I take the liberty of referring to a very simple and very economical plan on which a primary Normal School may at first be organized.

Choose the best-conducted primary school in the department, that which is in the hands of the master of the greatest ability and trust-worthiness. Annex to this school a class called Normal, in which this same master shall teach his art to a certain number of young men of the department, who are willing to come to it to form themselves for school-masters. None should be admitted till after an examination, made by a commission appointed by you. This commission must send you the results of its labors; and it would be well that the admission of the students to the primary Normal School should be signed by you, as is the case in the admission of students to the great Normal School for the instruction of the second degree. This small Normal School ought never to be placed in a very large town, the influence of which would be adverse to that spirit of poverty, humility and peace, so necessary to the students. There is no objection to their being day-pupils, provided they are responsible for their conduct out of the house. Nor is it necessary that all should receive exhibitions, or purses, especially whole purses. In all small towns there are families in which a young man may be boarded and lodged for about 300 francs a year, ($60;) so that 3000 francs, ($600,) prudently divided into whole, half, and quarter purses, would easily defray the cost of ten or fifteen students. Give the master the title of Director of the Normal School, which would be a real gain to him, inasmuch as it would increase his consideration; and for the additional labor you impose upon him, give him a salary of 700 or 800 francs. Add a yearly allowance of 400 or 500 francs for books, maps, and other things required in teaching; and thus, for 5000 francs, ($1000,) at the utmost, you have a small Normal School, which will be extremely useful to the department. The pupils should be permitted to leave it if they choose, in a year, provided they be able to go through the examination at quitting, on which depends their obtaining the brevet of primary teacher. Yes, it rests with you, by means of a circular to this effect, addressed to all the prefects of the kingdom, to have in a few months, eighty-four small primary Normal Schools in France. The plan which I propose does not commit you to any future measures, yet it at once covers France with Normal Schools which will supply our first wants. It is for time, zeal, intelligence, and perseverance to do the rest. There must always necessarily be a great difference among the Normal Schools of our eighty-four departments; but the best way is, to go on gradually improving, in proportion as experience shows you what is required. Even with this wise tardiness, three or four years will suffice to improve all these small Normal Schools, and to raise a great number to the rank of complete great Normal Schools.

The difference between a great and a small Normal School consists in this: a small Normal School is only an appendage to a primary school, whilst a great Normal School is an establishment subsisting by and for itself, to which a primary school (and if possible that should comprise both an elementary and a middle school) is annexed.

This difference gives the measure of all other differences. In the small Normal School there are only day-pupils, or at most a few boarders. In the great, the majority may be boarders. In the one, the course may be terminated in a year; in the other, it should extend through two years, as at Bruhl; and even, in time, according to the resources of the departments and the progress of public education, it might embrac years, as in most of the great Normal Schools of Prussia,—Potsd example. The departments must be the judges of their resources their wants. A department which wants twenty schoolmasters and which has a certain number of middle or burgher schools, as many elementary schools, can very well receive twenty pupils a which, supposing the course to occupy two or three years, amounts or sixty pupils at a time in the school. Then there must be accom tion for boarding them, a large building, a greater number of m more exhibitions, (*bourses*,) more expense of every sort.

In the hope that the few great primary Normal Schools we a possess will soon be succeeded by others, I beg your attention to lowing maxims, deduced from general experience, and from all th I have accumulated here.

I. To begin by giving instructions rather than rules; to confin self in these instructions to the establishing of a few essential poin to leave the rest to the departmental committee. To discuss and this small number of points in the royal council; not to multipl but inflexibly to enforce their execution. The fewer they are, th easy will this execution be, and the more susceptible will they be plication to all the Normal Schools of France; so that there wou common groundwork for all; a unity, which, passing from the Schools into the whole body of popular education, would have a be influence in strengthening the national unity. At the same tim unity would not be prejudicial to local diversities; for the depart committee would be desired to apply your general instructions ac to the peculiar manners or usages of the department. From the co tion of the uniformity of these instructions, with the diversity of a ments which the prudence and intelligence of the committee, a experience of each year, will recommend, a set of regulations f Normal School will gradually arise, more or less definitive, and th fit to be made public. The plan of study of the great Normal Sc Paris, for the supply of the royal and communal *colleges*, is the fifteen years' experience. This school, which was founded in 18 no written laws till 1815. We made important modifications i laws at the Revolution of 1830, and it was not till then that we v to print them, as the result, nearly definitive, or at least likely to for some time, of all the experiments successively tried. Let us this caution, and begin with a simple set of instructions from the m Rules for the studies and the discipline will gradually arise. Eve will modify them. The important thing is, to exact an accurate of the proceedings and results of the year, drawn up by the direct transmitted to you, together with all the necessary documents, by partmental committee and the prefect, who will subjoin their own Then, and then only, you will interpose your authority, with tha royal council, which will revise this report every year at the vacati pronounce on the improvements to be introduced.

II. To attach the greatest possible importance to the choice of a d It is a principle generally established in Prussia, that the goodne Normal School is in exact proportion to the goodness of the directo as the primary school is what its master is. What constitutes a School is not a fine building; on the contrary, it is not amiss that it not be over commodious or splendid. It is not even the excellenc regulations, which, without a faithful and intelligent execution o are only a useless bit of paper. A Normal School is what its dir He is the life and soul of it. If he is a man of ability, he will t poorest and humblest elements to account; if he is incapable, t and most prolific will remain sterile in his hands. Let us by no make our directors mere house-stewards. A director ought to be at the head of the most important branches of instruction, and to set an example to all the other masters. He must have long fulfilled the duties of a master; first, in different classes of a Normal course of education, so that he may have a general knowledge of the whole system; secondly, in *several* Normal Schools, so that he may have experience of difficulties of various kinds; lastly, he must not be placed at the head of a Normal School of the highest class, till he has been director of several of an inferior class, so as to graduate promotion according to merit, and thus keep up an honorable emulation.

III. An excellent practice in Germany is, to place the candidates, immediately on their leaving the Normal School, as assistant masters in schools which admit of two. The young men thus go through at least a year of apprenticeship,—a very useful novitiate: they gain age and experience, and their final appointment depends on their conduct as assistant masters. I regard every gradation as extremely useful, and I think a little graduated scale of powers and duties might be advantageously introduced into primary instruction.

1st. Pupil of a Normal School admitted after competition, holding a more or less high rank in the examination list at the end of each year, and quitting the school with such or such a number. 2d. Same pupil promoted to the situation of assistant master. 3d. Schoolmaster successively in different schools rising in salary and in importance. 4th. After distinguished services, master in a primary Normal School. 5th. Lastly, director of a school of that class, with the prospect of gradually rising to be director of a numerous and wealthy Normal School, which would be a post equal to that of professor of a royal *college*. The human soul lives in the future. It is ambitious, because it is infinite. Let us then open to it a progressive career, even in the humblest occupations.

IV. We can not be too deeply impressed with this truth—that paid instruction is better than gratuitous instruction. The entire sum paid for board at a Normal School must be extremely moderate, for the young men of the poorest classes to be able to pay it. We must give only quarter or half exhibitions, (*bourses*,) reserving two or three whole ones for the two or three young men, out of the fifteen admitted annually, who stand first on the list; and even this should not be continued to them the second year, unless their conduct had been irreproachable and their application unremitting.

On the same principle as that laid down above, the elementary school annexed to the Normal School ought not to be entirely gratuitous; it ought to have no other masters than the forwardest pupils of the Normal School, acting under the direction of their masters. The profits of the elementary school for practice would go to diminish the total cost of the Normal School. As for the middle school for practice, it would be contrary to the principle of all middle schools to have it gratuitous.

V. Divide the studies of all Normal Schools into two parts: during the first, the pupils should be considered simply as students, whose acquirements are to be confirmed, extended, and methodized: during the second, as masters, who are to be theoretically and practically taught the art of teaching. If the Normal course only lasts a year, this part of it ought to occupy at least six months; if it lasts two years, it ought to occupy a year; if three years, it would still occupy only a year. The students in this last year would give lessons in the elementary and middle schools annexed to the Normal School.

VI. The examination at quitting ought to be more rigid than that at entering the school. The important thing is to have young men of good capacity, even if they know little; for they will learn rapidly; while some, who might not be deficient in a certain quantity of acquired know-

ledge, but were dull or wrong-headed, could never be made goo
masters. No latitude whatever must be left to the Commission
ination at departure. Here, intelligence must show itself in
attainments, since opportunity to acquire them has been given.
but negligence can have stood in their way, and that negligen
be the greatest of all faults. This latter examination, therefore
directed to ascertain the acquired, and not the natural fitness.
the examination on entering, I wish that the Commission sho
particularly inquire into the talents and natural bent, and, abov
the moral character and disposition. A little discretionary pow
to be confided to it. This applies more especially to those
Schools, the course of which lasts two or three years. Three
study will not give intelligence; but they will give all the
attainments in abundance.

VII. It is my earnest desire, that conferences* should be form
the schoolmasters of each canton. I wish it, but have but little
at least at first. Such conferences suppose both too great a lov
profession, and too great a familiarity with the spirit of associ
thing much more easy to accomplish is, that during the vacatio
primary schools, a certain number of masters should repair to th
School of the department to perfect themselves in this or that
branch, and to receive lessons appropriate to their wants, as is
in Prussia. This time would be very usefully, and even very
employed; for the young masters would be brought into con
their old instructors and companions, and would have an oppo
renewing and cementing old friendships. Here would be an i
prospect for them every year. For such an object, we must n
a little expense for their journey and their residence. I should
wish that the vacations of the primary schools, which must be
by certain agricultural labors, should always precede those of th
Normal Schools, in order that the masters of the former might
take advantage of the lessons in the latter, and might be pres
parting examinations of the third year, which would be an exc
ercise for the young acting masters.

I am convinced of the utility of having an inspector of primar
for each department, who would spend the greater part of th
going from school to school, in stirring up the zeal of the maste
ing a right direction to that of the communal committees, and i
up a general and very beneficial harmony among the *maire*
cures. It is unnecessary for me to say, that this inspector ough
to be some old master of a Normal School, selected for his ta
still more for his tried character. But if this institution, which
sal in Germany, were not popular among us, nearly the sam
might be obtained by authorizing the director, or in default of
masters of the Normal School, to visit a certain number of the
the department every year, during the vacation of their own s
to do what would be done by the inspector above named. Th
find great facilities from their old habits of intercourse and friend
most of the masters, over whom they would exercise almost
influence. On the other hand, they would gain by these visits, a
acquire a continually increasing experience, which would turn
vantage of the Normal Schools. You have seen that in Prussi
the visits of the circle-inspectors, the directors of Normal Schools m
ations of this kind, for which they receive some very slender remu
for these little journeys are sources of pleasure to them, as well
ity to the public.

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* See notes to Professor Stowe's Essay, page 243.

VIII. Let solidity, rather than extent, be aimed at, in the course of instruction. The young masters must know a few things fundamentally, rather than many things superficially. Vague and superficial attainments must be avoided at any rate. The steady continuous labor which must be gone through to know anything whatsoever thoroughly, is an admirable discipline for the mind. Besides, nothing is so prolific as one thing well known; it is an excellent starting point for a thousand others. The final examinations must be mainly directed to the elements,—they must probe to the bottom, they must keep solidity always in view.

IX. Avoid ambitious methods and exclusive systems: attend, above all, to results, that is to say, to solid acquirements; and, with a view to them, consult experience. Clear explanations on every subject, connectedness and continuity in the lessons, with an ardent love for the business of teaching, are worth all the general rules and methods in the world.

X. A branch of study common to all schools ought to be the French tongue; the just pronunciation of words, and the purity and correctness of language. By this means the national language would insensibly supersede the rude unintelligible dialects and provincialisms. In the Normal Schools where German is still the language of the people, German and French must both be taught, in order not to offend against local attachments, and at the same time to implant the spirit of nationality.

XI. Without neglecting physical science, and the knowledge applicable to the arts of life, we must make moral science, which is of far higher importance, our main object. The mind and the character are what a true master ought, above all, to fashion. We must lay the foundations of moral life in the souls of our young masters, and therefore we must place religious instruction,—that is, to speak distinctly, Christian instruction,—in the first rank in the education of our Normal Schools. Leaving to the *curé*, or to the pastor of the place, the care of instilling the doctrines peculiar to each communion, we must constitute religion a special object of instruction, which must have its place in each year of the Normal course; so that at the end of the entire course, the young masters, without being theologians, may have a clear and precise knowledge of the history, doctrines, and, above all, the moral precepts of Christianity. Without this, the pupils, when they become masters, would be incapable of giving any other religious instruction than the mechanical repetition of the catechism, which would be quite insufficient. I would particularly urge this point, which is the most important and the most delicate of all. Before we can decide on what should constitute a true primary Normal School, we must determine what ought to be the character of a simple elementary school, that is, a humble village school. The popular schools of a nation ought to be imbued with the religious spirit of that nation. Now without going into the question of diversities of doctrine, is Christianity, or is it not, the religion of the people of France? It can not be denied that it is. I ask then, is it our object to respect the religion of the people, or to destroy it? If we mean to set about destroying it, then, I allow, we ought by no means to have it taught in the people's schools. But if the object we propose to ourselves is totally different, we must teach our children that religion which civilized our fathers; that religion whose liberal spirit prepared, and can alone sustain, all the great institutions of modern times. We must also permit the clergy to fulfil their first duty,—the superintendence of religious instruction. But in order to stand the test of this superintendence with honor, the schoolmaster must be enabled to give adequate religious instruction; otherwise parents, in order to be sure that their children receive a good religious education, will require us to appoint ecclesiastics as schoolmasters, which, though assuredly better than having irreligious schoolmasters, would be liable to very serious objections of various kinds. The less we desire our schools to be ecclesiastical, the

more ought they to be Christian. It necessarily follows, that t
be a course of special religious instruction in our Normal Schoo
gion is, in my eyes, the best, perhaps the only, basis of popul
tion. I know something of Europe, and never have I seen go
where the spirit of Christian charity was wanting. Primary i
flourishes in three countries, Holland, Scotland, and Germany;
profoundly religious. It is said to be so in America. The litt
instruction I ever found in Italy came from the priests. In Fra
few exceptions, our best schools for the poor are those of the *Fr*
Doctrine Chretienne. (Brothers of the Christian Doctrine.) Thes
which it is necessary to be incessantly repeating to certain pers
them go into the schools of the poor,—let them learn what patie
resignation, are required to induce a man to persevere in so to
employment. Have better nurses ever been found than those b
nuns who bestow on poverty all those attentions we pay to
There are things in human society which can neither be conc
accomplished without virtue,—that is to say, when speaking of
without religion. The schools for the middle classes may be an
speculation; but the country schools, the miserable little schoo
south, in the west, in Britanny, in the mountains of Auvergne, a
out going so far, the lowest schools of our great cities, of Paris
never hold out any adequate inducement to persons seeking a r
ting occupation. There will doubtless be some philosophers
with the ardent philanthropy of Saint Vincent de Paule, withou
gious enthusiasm, who would devote themselves to this austere
but the question is not to have here and there a master. We h
than forty thousand schools to serve, and it were wise to call r
the aid of our insufficient means, were it but for the alleviati
pecuniary burdens of the nation. Either you must lavish the
of the state, and the revenues of the *communes*, in order to g
salaries, and even pensions, to that new order of tradesmen calle
masters; or you must not imagine you can do without Christia
and that spirit of poverty, humility, courageous resignation, an
dignity, which Christianity, rightly understood and wisely tau
alone give to the teachers of the people. The more I think of al
more I look at the schools in this country, the more I talk with t
ors of Normal Schools and councilors of the ministry, the m
strengthened in the conviction that we must make any effort
sacrifices to come to a good understanding with the clergy on th
of popular education, and to constitute religion a special and v
fully-taught branch of instruction in our primary Normal Schoo

I am not ignorant that this advice will grate on the ears of m
sons, and that I shall be thought extremely devout at Paris. Ye
from Rome, but from Berlin, that I address you. The man w
this language to you is a philosopher, formerly disliked, and ev
cuted, by the priesthood; but this philosopher has a mind too litt
ed by the recollection of his own insults, and is too well acquai
human nature and with history, not to regard religion as an in
ble power: genuine Christianity, as a means of civilization for th
and a necessary support for those on whom society imposes irk
humble duties, without the slightest prospect of fortune, without
gratification of self-love.

I am now arrived at the termination of this long report. Ma
use to you in the important work which now engages your a
My illustrious colleague, M. Cuvier, has already exhibited to Fr
organization of primary instruction in Holland. The experienc
many, and particularly of Prussia, ought not to be lost upon us.
rivalries or antipathies would here be completely out of place.

greatness of a people does not consist in borrowing nothing from others, but in borrowing from all whatever is good, and in perfecting whatever it appropriates.

I am as great an enemy as any one to artificial imitations; but it is mere pusillanimity to reject a thing for no other reason than that it has been thought good by others. With the promptitude and justness of the French understanding, and the indestructible unity of our national character, we may assimilate all that is good in other countries without fear of ceasing to be ourselves. Placed in the center of Europe, possessing every variety of climate, bordering on all civilized nations, and holding up perpetual intercourse with them, France is essentially cosmopolitan; and indeed this is the main source of her great influence. Besides, civilized Europe now forms but one great family. We constantly imitate England in all that concerns outward life, the mechanical arts, and physical refinements; why, then, should we blush to borrow something from kind, honest, pious, learned Germany, in what regards inward life and the nurture of the soul?

For my own part, I avow my high esteem and peculiar affection for the German people; and I am happy that my mission proved to them that the revolution of July,—that revolution, as necessary and as just as the legitimate right of self-defense; that revolution, sprung from the unanimous resistance of a great people to a capricious aggression, an open violation, not of hypothetical rights, but of liberties secured by law,—is not, as its enemies pretend, a return to the impiety, the licentiousness and the corruption of a fatal period; but, on the contrary, the signal for a general improvement in opinion and in morals; since one of the first acts of the new government has been the holy enterprise of the amelioration of public education, of which the instruction of the people is the basis."

With this preparation,—a good beginning already made in several departments, and the long and successful experience of Prussia and other German states before him,—a regulation was framed by M. Guizot, and sanctioned by the Council of Public Instruction, by which, in connection with the law of 1833, a system of Normal Schools has been established and is fast regenerating the elementary instruction in France. The following is an outline of the system:

Each department is obliged, either alone or in conjunction with other neighboring departments, to support one Normal School for the education of its schoolmasters.

The expense of this establishment for building, apparatus, and instruction, is borne mainly by the department, whilst the direction of the education given in it is vested in the Minister of Public Instruction, who is responsible to the Chambers, of both of which he is an ex officio member, for the right exercise of his power.

The immediate management of Normal Schools and of the model schools annexed is committed to a Director who is appointed by the Minister, on the presentation of the prefect of the department, and the rector of the academy. These directors are paid wholly or partially from the public funds set apart by the department for public instruction. If the department refuses or neglects to provide sufficient funds, the government enforces the collection of the necessary tax; if the department is overburdened, the government contributes its aid.

To meet the expense of board, the pupils are assisted by gratuities, or bursaries, which the communes, departments, the university, the state, and even individuals, have established for this purpose. These *burses* are usually granted in halves or quarters, the rest of the expense being

borne by the pupils. Of 1944 pupil-teachers in 1834, 1308 we
of the departments, 118 of the communes, 245 of the state, anc
maintained at their own expense.

Every candidate for admission to these institutions, and to
ment of a *bourse*, or any part of one, must bind himself to follo
fession of a parish schoolmaster for ten years at least after q
institution; and to reimburse it for the whole expense of his ma
if he fail to fulfill his decennial engagement. He must have
his sixteenth year; and besides the ordinary elementary acq
must produce evidence both of good previous character, and
intelligence and aptitude to learn. Most of the bursaries arc
upon a comparative trial among competitors, who are likely
every year more numerous; and the examination for admission
arranged and conducted, that it tends to raise higher and
standard of previous acquirement.

The course of instruction and training to which the youth is
duced, occupies two years of eleven months each, *i. e.* from
October to the first of the ensuing September, and embraces
ing objects:—

1st. Moral and religious instruction. The latter, in as far
tinct from the former, is given by the clergyman of the parti
which the pupil happens to profess.

2d. Reading, with the grammar of their own language.

3d. Arithmetic, including an intimate and practical acquain
the legal system of weights and measures. This knowledge
hold so prominent a part in the program of instruction, as aff
best means of introducing that admirable system into the ha
French people, among whom, from ignorance and prejudice, it
from being generally adopted.

4th. Linear drawing, and construction of diagrams, land-
and other applications of practical geometry.

5th. Elements of physical science, with a special view to th
of ordinary life.

6th. Music, taught by the eye as well as by the ear.

7th. Gymnastics.

8th. The elements of general geography and history, and t
lar geography and history of France.

9th. The pupils are instructed, and, wherever the locality ad
cised also, in the rearing of esculent vegetables, and in the p
grafting of trees.

10th. They are accustomed to the drawing out of the sim
forms and civil deeds.

A library for the use of the pupils is fitted up within the pren
a sum is set apart every year for the purchase of such works as
cil of Public Instruction may judge likely to be useful to
schoolmasters.

The course of study is, for the present, limited to two years,
three, which is the term ultimately contemplated as the most
During the second of those years, instruction in the principles o
teaching is kept constantly in view; and for the last six months
ular, the pupils are trained to the practical application of the mos
methods, by being employed as assistants in the different clas
primary schools, which are invariably annexed to the Normal
part and parcel of the establishment.

The director, besides general superintendence, is charged
important branch of the instruction; the rest is devolved on hi
or assistant masters, who reside in the establishment.

Any graduate of a Normal School can attend any of the cou struction in the Normal School of the department in which he resides, to learn new methods, or improve his previous acquirements. The departments are authorized to grant assistance to such teachers. The Normal Schools admit pupils of different religious denominations. All sectarian instruction is avoided in the general lessons, and the pupils receive this instruction at times set apart for it from clergymen of their own church. Until a pupil has obtained a certificate of his proficiency in the doctrines of his own religion, from a minister of his own church, he can not officiate as a schoolmaster. Any person who ventures to conduct a public school without having obtained from the departmental committee of examination a certificate of qualification, is liable to a fine of two hundred francs.

The Departmental Committee, or Commission of Examination, is composed of at least seven members appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, upon the recommendation of the rector of the academy. Three members at least must be selected from among those who have already exercised, or are at the time exercising the function of public teachers, and who are most likely to unite ability and integrity. It is recommended that one of the seven be a clergyman. "To act," says the Minister, in a circular addressed to each of the twenty-six rectors,—"to act in concert with the three members belonging to the body of Public Instruction in these *Commissions d'examen*, a minister of religion will doubtless be summoned. The law has put moral and religious instruction in the foremost rank; the teacher, therefore, must give proof of his being able to communicate to the children intrusted to his care, those important ideas which are to be the rule of their lives. Doubtless every functionary of public instruction, every father of a family who shall be placed on this commission by your recommendation, as rector of the academy, will be fully able to appreciate the moral and religious attainments of the candidates; but it is, nevertheless, fit and proper, that the future teachers of youth should exhibit proof of their capacity in this respect, before persons whom their peculiar character and special mission more particularly qualify to be judges in this matter."

The most important of all the duties devolved upon these examining commissions, is that of conferring on the pupil, when he quits the institution, a *brevet de capacite*. Carelessness, partiality, or ignorance, in the discharge of it, would entirely defeat the main object of the law on primary instruction. This *brevet*, certifying the holder's fitness to be a teacher, either in the lower or higher grade of primary schools, constitutes his passport to the labors and honors of his profession. With it, and his certificate of good conduct in his pocket, he may carry his skill and industry to any market he pleases, without further let or impediment.

There are three grades of certificates of qualification for both elementary and superior primary; *tres bien*, (very good,) *bien*, (good,) and *assez-bien*, (sufficient,) which infuses a spirit of competition throughout the pupils of the Normal Schools, and the public schools generally.

The system of Normal Schools has remained substantially on this basis to the present time. Every year has extended and consolidated its influence in spite of the interested opposition of old and inefficient teachers, who find themselves less and less appreciated, and the complaint of local committees, who in many instances are disposed to take up with the first teacher who presents himself, whether qualified or not. Their number has increased from forty-three in 1833 to ninety-three in 1849, including ten Institutes belonging to the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine, and three for female teachers, under the auspices of an association of Christian Education, on a similar plan. In 1834 there were but 1,044 graduates of

Normal Schools employed in the primary schools; in 1848, th
had increased to 10,545. The expense of this branch of the s
tem cost in 1841, according to a report of M. Villemain,—

To the State,	164,445 francs.
" Communes,	23,890
" Departments,	1,081,348
" Pupils,	268,520
Total,	1,538,203

CONFERENCES, OR TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS,

AND TEACHERS' LIBRARIES.

THE suggestion of M. Cousin in his Report* as to the utility of conferences of teachers, was not acted upon by the Council of Public Instruction until 1837. In February of that year, a law was presented by the Minister of this department and passed by the Chambers on this subject. The substance of this law is presented in the following remarks by M. Willm, in his valuable treatise on the Education of the People.

"This law treats, in the first place, of the object of conferences; and then, of their epochs and government. The first article authorizes 'the teachers of one or several districts to assemble, with the sanction of the local authorities, and, under the close inspection of the committee of the department, to *confer amongst themselves* on the different subjects of their teaching—on the ways and methods they employ—and on the principles which ought to be adopted in the education of children and conduct of masters. Every other subject of discussion must be excluded from these conferences.' In regard to this article, I would observe, that it would not be advantageous for teachers who thus assemble to be very numerous; and that they must avoid coming from too great a distance to the place of meeting. Neither must they be very few in number; because, in that case, there would be too little variety and animation in their labors; but, were they more than twelve or fifteen, each would not be able to take an active part in the proceedings.

The second article reminds teachers that the law has placed at the head of the subject-matters of instruction, moral and religious instruction; and that it is their duty to occupy themselves with it. From this it seems to follow, that teachers belonging to different sects must not assemble together in the same conferences. In Alsace, for example, priests or ministers are generally presidents—which is a stronger reason for teachers of different communions not assembling promiscuously together.

The third article says, that the superior committees will point out to the different assemblies the subjects on which the attention of the teachers ought more especially to be fixed. These committees hitherto have, unfortunately, occupied themselves very little with such conferences; some even have opposed their formation, or given them an organization very different from that recommended by the royal council. Can there be no means of remedying this omnipotence of the committees, and regulating that liberty, in such a way as not to risk anarchy?

According to the fourth article, 'each teacher may beg permission to give an account of what he has read since last meeting, to make observations on the works in connection with primary instruction recently published, to read some essay of his own on the discipline of schools, or on some one of the branches of instruction.' Each may, besides, address to the assembly a verbal communication on the art of teaching, submit to it a doubt or difficulty, which in his daily practice he may have met.

The eighth article says that the president of the conferences must always be appointed by the rector of the academy. The president ought, wherever possible, to be selected from such as are not members of the association; he should be some friend and connoisseur of popular education, without being teacher; he will thus direct the debates and labors of the conference with more authority and a wider range of view; the information which he displays in the discharge

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* See page 418.

of his duties will be more varied and profound; and he will be, in the
teachers, the interpreter of what the world expects from them.

Every thing will depend on the manner in which their labors are
and on the zeal with which the teachers engage in them. One of the
results of conference ought to be, the exercising them in speaking. S
the instrument of the art of teaching. In the management of a schoo
all that concerns the mechanism of teaching, the teacher ought to spe
his commands ought to be brief; and, in most cases, a word, a gestur
will suffice. But in teaching, properly so called, when he is engage
pounding the first truths of morality and religion, in explaining what
read by the pupils, in narrating to them the history of the Bible or nat
tory, (sacred or profane history,) in telling them of the wonders of the
and the earth—then he must be able to speak with fluency, clearness,
cision, if not eloquently. Children, like men, are fascinated by the c
speech. The choicest things, badly said, produce on them no impress
—like arrows, darted by a feeble and trembling hand—glide, so to spe
the surface of their mind, and never reach its depths.

The essays of the teachers may consist of two kinds. One clas
written on any subjects, but should be analogous to what teachers pre
their most advanced pupils—such as some scene of nature or of huma
grand or useful thought, an historical fact, &c. These essays ought
long; and must be written with that correct simplicity, which is as far
from the inelegancies of a vulgar style, as from the far-fetched phras
the Wit. These first essays—exercises in composition and thought—
be a means of perfecting the teachers in the art of speaking. The ot
of essays, treating of some branch of the pedagogic art, may be more
useful to them. In composing them, their memory, their own experien
than books, ought to be consulted; and simplicity and truth, rather tha
and originality, ought to be aimed at. The greatest possible clear
cision, and actual utility ought to be the distinguishing features of thes

In some societies of teachers, the same question is offered to the cons
of all the members,—thus creating amongst them a species of competi
as every essay must be read and discussed during the meeting, they
restricted, in following this mode of procedure, to the composition onl
or three a-year; or obliged to multiply, beyond measure, the numb
meetings; and in both cases the interest would be, inevitably, dimini
is desirable, however, that at each sitting, the same subject be handle
members. The two essays would compete with each other, and oc
discussion; which the president would take care to manage, so that
speak in rotation, and that no one, while speaking, take undue ad
Every expression of praise or censure, every observation tending to sh
esteem or modesty, ought, on all sides, to be prohibited. If, at the ter
of the sitting, the majority be not sufficiently instructed, they could co
the president, or another member, to resume the discussion at the n
ference.

On other occasions, to vary still farther the proceedings, the auth
essay could address it some days before the meeting, in the form of a
one of his colleagues, requesting his opinion of it. The letter and rep
then be read, and their contents discussed in the ordinary manner. T
cedure is preferable, in my opinion, to the practice of several societie
many. After the reading of an essay, a member is then enjoined to
criticism of it at next meeting. This method is accompanied with se
conveniences. Self-love becomes a willing co-operator. The critic en
by every means, to find cause for controversy, and believes himself,
sense, obliged to think differently from him whom he has been appo
judge. In this manner concord and friendship, so necessary to the pros
the association, are, without great benefit to truth, seriously compromi

I would add, that copies of all the essays should be deposited in the
where every one might consult them.

I have said that each member may demand permission to make to th
bly any communication relative to the art of teaching; to submit to i
tion, a doubt, an observation, which his practice may have suggested
Such communications add much to the interest and utility of conferen
means of them, the experience of each becomes, in some sense, the ex

of all. Those who have been occupied many years in teaching will aid their junior fellow-laborers.

In fine, it may happen, and it happens but too often, that, in their relations with the local authorities and the parents, differences arise, to disturb the good understanding—the perfect harmony between them and the teachers. These differences should be submitted in the conferences to the appreciation of their colleagues—to the judgment of their compeers. They will thus be less subject to mistakes and anger; and, when necessary, more undaunted in repelling injustice, and in maintaining their rights.

LIBRARIES FOR THE USE OF TEACHERS IN FRANCE.

The fifteenth article of the law of February, 1837, on conferences of teachers, provides for the establishment of libraries for the use of those who attend the conferences. By means of the funds which the parishes or the county have granted for this purpose, or by means of clubbing among the teachers, a library should be formed for those who attend the conferences regularly. The books composing the library should be inserted in a catalogue, which must be verified every year. A copy of said catalogue must be sent to the Minister of Public Instruction.

M. Willm makes the following remarks on the subject:

"Such libraries may be established by teachers who do not assemble in regular conferences, or associate for such a purpose. A distinguished teacher may be conceived to address the following language to his colleagues, to induce them to establish such a society: 'Two principal objections may be made against this scheme. In the first place, how, with the scanty resources at our disposal, can we establish a library, in the smallest degree, complete; and then, amongst such a host of books, whose number augments every day, will not a proper selection be difficult—even impossible? In replying to these objections, I will, at the same time, let you know my views on the course to be pursued in the acquisition of books. These views are the results of my own experience, and of the counsels which, in former times, I was fortunate to receive.

I do not dissemble the importance of the doubts I am attempting to remove; the first, especially, seems but too well founded. How, indeed, with our trifling resources, can we hope to establish in a few years a library ever so little worthy of the name? We are ten members; each of us will put into the society's strong box, three shillings as entry money, and a shilling per month, or twelve shillings per annum: this is much for us—too much perhaps; and it is to be desired, that, at a later period, this monthly payment be reduced. We will thus have at our disposal, the first year, the sum of one hundred and fifty shillings. Of this sum, fifteen shillings must be spent in purchasing registers, pens, and paper; and, by adding ten shillings for small incidental expenses, our income will be reduced to one hundred and twenty-five shillings. We must become subscribers for two pedagogic journals, which may cost about twenty-five shillings a year. To lay the foundation of our library, about one hundred shillings remain.

To found, with a hundred shillings, a library, appears absurd—impossible. But let us forget for an instant the ambitious name of library, and simply say that we unite together for the purpose of procuring, in one year, ten times more books than each of us singly could purchase, and it will be granted that we are doing a judicious thing, and making an excellent speculation. Will it not be a sufficiently good result of our association, if, instead of one or two works, which perhaps each of us might have purchased, besides what are indispensable, we have at the end of the year from ten to twenty at our disposal? And supposing we continue at this rate for ten years; instead of from ten to twenty, would we not have from one hundred to two hundred, and perhaps more? And could not our collection, then, without too much vanity, be styled a library? Great things have often sprung from small beginnings. If you persevere, you will have the merit of bequeathing to your successors a considerable number of books; and, after two or three generations, the teachers of our dis have for their use a valuable library. Is, then, the thought of workin future of no estimation to the good man, and is not even that thought says Lafontaine, *a fruit which to-day we enjoy?*

But, besides the satisfaction of founding a work for which our s will bless us, we ourselves will reap from it precious advantages. By ting, we unshackle the means of instruction. The books besides, wh deliberation and common consent we procure, will be better selecte each had been left to his own knowledge. And if you adopt my vie course to be followed in the acquisition of books, if you select them to fixed principles, agreed to beforehand, they will form, in the very in spite of their fewness, a finished whole. Ten, twenty volumes sele judgment, according to a certain plan, and which, by referring to ea mutually complete and explain each other, are—in spite of the variet contents and immediate object—more valuable than three or four many works, excellent, perhaps, but chosen at random and incon From this, it follows, that after ten years' association, we might ha command, not only ten times more books than we would have had, if been left to his own resources; but that these books, more judiciousl will have a relative value much greater than the same, or double th of volumes collected at random.

An association affords still another advantage in this respect. works composed of several volumes, and whose price is such, that the of teachers are incapable of procuring them at their own expense. can acquire, if necessary, even very expensive works, and some of th cations may be indispensable.

We may, besides, entertain the hope that other teachers will soon cherish another hope; I hope, if we persevere, that the communities trict, that the higher committee of our parish and the academy, wi our aid. As we think not of ourselves alone whilst we are endeavor large the limits of our instruction, but of our *schools* and of the *futur* without a blush, invoke the assistance of all who are interested in po cation—of the citizens who discover in it a means of public felicity— authorities intrusted with its direction. Works, we do not doubt, wi from different sources, and, if we seriously wish it, we will soon ha disposal a stock of books, sufficiently respectable to constitute the nu DISTRICT-SCHOOL LIBRARY.

I come to the second objection—the difficulty of making a suitable among so many books. This difficulty is serious; but in proport scantiness of our means, we are less liable to be misled. This cons far from discouraging us, ought only to impress still more deeply the which ought to guide our selection.

The number of works on all subjects, has, for a century especia giously increased. The science of education, for a long time negl treated by some distinguished writers only at distant intervals, recko days, its books by hundreds—if we comprehend those addressed es childhood and youth. But we must not be frightened by this multi riches, in the main, is but apparent. Many of those works whose t the catalogues of the booksellers, are old and obsolete; many othe imitations and of little value. Good writers of every kind are not and even among the good, a selection can be made. The essential know how to select well. As to old books, we will trust to their which seldom misleads; and as to new books, we will consult enlight

Of the works recognized as good, we will always select the be most complete. To read *much* is not the principal point, but to read to read often the *best* productions. The fruits which may be reaped ing, depend as much upon the manner of reading, as upon the excelle books read.

Our library will be composed of three kinds of works. In the firs shall place such as treat of the art of education; of teaching in g primary instruction in particular. It will not be necessary to secu number of books of this class; a few solid and complete treatises, wh mise the science, will suffice for the commencement. The most ess cepts and the rules universally approved, are found in all good proc any length. To good treatises, however, to encyclopedic manuals, which exhibit pedagogy as a whole, and which, faithful to the precept, *prove all things and cleave to what is good*—unite what even the different methods possess of most practical and reasonable—we will add, later works upon the most remarkable special methods. Still later, in a few years, we may be able to admit into our collection a certain number of works already old, which, like Rousseau's *Emile*, have formed an epoch in the history of the art of education; then, to keep pace with the progress of the science, we only have to procure, at distant intervals, some good new treatise.

The second series of works of our future library, should consist of such as expound either the whole or some branch of primary instruction; of manuals of religion and morality; of arithmetic, geography, and general or national history; natural history, physics, hygiane, agriculture, and technology; written expressly for teachers, children, and the people.

Finally, the richest portion of our library might be composed of instructive and rare works, which, while adding to our knowledge, will afford useful relaxation, and the means of infusing into our lessons a wholesome variety; of exciting and sustaining the attention of our pupils, and of throwing an interest around our teaching.

I rank in this third class of books, *first*, extracts or selections from travels in the different quarters of the globe. They will supply the place of the original narratives, too dear, and which include, besides, generally many very useless details, or things already known. There is scarcely any kind of reading more interesting than the history of travels in distant countries, and which furnishes the most useful materials for the instruction of youth.

Secondly, historical works, particularly natural history, selecting, in preference, such as have been composed for the young of schools. We might extract from them, to narrate to our pupils, those traits of magnanimity and devotedness to one's country and humanity, which constitute the beauty and honor of history.

Thirdly, I would place in our library a few religious and national poets; good anthologies; selections and collections of pieces in prose and verse; a few books more especially written for the instruction and amusement of childhood and youth, and which can be read to and by our pupils.

Fourthly, popular works which, addressed directly to the people, in towns and in the country, strive to snatch them from the misery of ignorance, to render them better and happier; and which adapt to their capacity, morality, counsels of prudence, and the most interesting and useful results of science in general. Till each parish possess its own library, we shall form, as it were, an intermediate stage, a connecting link, between science and the people. To explain these books, and to facilitate the comprehension of them, we must ourselves be thoroughly acquainted with them. We will find in them, besides, an abundant source of instruction for ourselves and for our pupils.

In short, my dear Colleagues, our library ought to consist of a small number of works on methods; manuals of all the branches of primary instruction and of the education of the people; and many instructive and popular works. Thus, all works of pure amusement, and such as are not addressed directly either to schools or youth, to the people or to the teachers of the people, must be excluded. By confining ourselves within these limits, our selection will not be difficult; especially if we be guided by men well versed in such matters. Let us begin the work; let us persevere in the prosecution of it; and soon we shall have to congratulate ourselves on having undertaken it, and on having founded, at the expense of a few light sacrifices, an institution of incontestible utility.'"

MEANS OF IMPROVING

THE

PECUNIARY CONDITION OF TEACHERS IN FRANCE.

THE provisions of the French law respecting Teachers' Confe
and Libraries, and the remarks of M. Willm, are intended to sho
teachers, by association, may add to the acquirements of the N
School, keep pace with new methods and discoveries, clear up th
culties and supply the wants met with in their particular position, a
cape from that meaningless routine of practices, and dull unifor
character, to which their profession pursued alone exposes them
the French law aims, although imperfectly, to ameliorate the te
condition, and the condition of his family, by guarding against p
and future want. On these points M. Willm makes many judiciou
gestions from which American teachers may profit.

"If poverty be always an evil, it is especially so to the teacher; bec
prevents him from performing efficiently his duty, and enjoying due disti
His functions will be doubly painful, if the cares of the morrow deprive
the energy sufficient to accomplish his daily task. I demand not wealth
teacher: I ask not that he be rich, but beyond the reach of indigence
he be able to live in honest ease, without being obliged to devote himsel
bors foreign to his profession; that he have the power to continue his s
to support a family, and to enjoy an honorable repose in his old age—if
accord him length of days—or die undisturbed as to the future lot
children, if carried away from them in the midst of his career.

The condition of the teacher is at present widely different from this.
law of 1833 has undoubtedly bettered his lot;—and it were ungrateful t
it. It may be said, indeed, that in general, schoolmasters are better p
France than in most other countries. In Germany there are a consi
number who do not gain the minimum salary of four hundred francs; an
in Prussia, the average—every thing included—is, for a town-teacher
hundred francs; for a country teacher, about three hundred francs: and
remark that, in Prussia, living is much dearer than in France. It is not
sary to reckon up in detail our every-day expenses, to be convinced tha
such a paltry income, it is wholly impossible to maintain housekeeping
most economical principle; and that a family of industrious laborers ha
greater chance of prospering than that of a teacher.

In France, I repeat, teachers are, in general, much better paid. In to
is seldom that they do not gain from one thousand to twelve hundred
and in several localities their income exceeds this. In the country, th
few whose salary is under five hundred francs; and many gain a gre
more. But five hundred francs and one thousand francs are but poor ren
tion for three hundred and sixty-five days' labor; for to gain even that s
teacher is most frequently obliged to add to the functions of schoolmaste
of beadle, organist, and chanter; such a sum is too inconsiderable to su
family; for we always take for granted that the teacher is married, and
family: and that so he sets a good example, and is rendered more qual
train men and citizens.

The condition of teachers must therefore be improved; it must be r
more pleasant, and, at the same time, more respected, not only with a re
their interests, but especially for the sake of schools, of the people, and
state itself.

1. Teachers may themselves do much to ameliorate their lot, and raise their condition. They must remember the old proverb—*help yourself, and Heaven will help you.* ' M. Schlez, a much esteemed German teacher, thinks that a teacher should always follow some trade, avoiding scrupulously, however, every degrading calling, or which might bring him into competition with the inhabitants of the district. He proposes, as compatible with the functions of the teacher of the people, gardening; the cultivation and grafting of trees; the rearing of bees and silk-worms; musical instrument-making; clock-making; bookbinding; bandbox-making; moulding; painting; the art of turning; the construction of barometers and thermometers; the duties of copyist and book-keeper—and, finally, private lessons. But many of these occupations would require too long an apprenticeship, or engage too much time, to render them lucrative; or they would need an outlay beyond the ordinary means of a teacher. Country teachers might find a valuable resource, as well as a noble récreation, in the cultivation of a garden of limited extent, which all districts ought to have at their disposal; and the ground of which, if it could not be purchased, they might almost always find opportunity to rent.

' The art of gardening, which includes the grafting of trees, the cultivation of useful plants and of flowers, appears the most compatible with the occupation of teachers; between them are close analogies. That art can be learned at small expense, and in a short time. The teacher who, from his being well paid, needs not devote himself to pursuits foreign to his profession, might follow it simply for amusement; others would find it a means of improving their condition: and the employment would neither be degrading nor fatiguing. I have seen one of these gardens cultivated by a teacher, whose school was a garden blessed to him by Heaven. One division of it furnished kitchen vegetables; another was planted with fruit-trees of the best sorts; a third, was a nursery exceedingly varied, and flowers abounded in every quarter. Often he led to it his select pupils; his garden was at once a source of pleasure and profit to himself, and of instruction to his school. This example ought to be generally imitated. To the cultivation of a garden and orchard, country teachers might join, according to circumstances, the rearing of bees or silk-worms. During winter, study and instruction ought exclusively to occupy them, and nothing should prevent their keeping an evening-school for adults, or for young people from fifteen to twenty years of age, as is done in several districts of Alsace. This evening-school, which might be of great utility, would supplement a little income; and it depends but on the interest they had in it, to induce a great number of their old pupils to take an active part in this additional instruction. Bandbox-making and book-binding, would likewise be suitable occupations, but not very lucrative.

Shall I inform the country teachers that they have in their own power another means of being in less uneasy circumstances, and that this means is rigid economy, a retired and unassuming life? I have scarcely courage to do so, for the majority are indeed forced to be economical. There is, however, a considerable number who frequent inns and coffee-shops; and who are too much engaged in public amusements, little compatible with the moral authority which they ought to exercise, or with the state of their fortune. Without preventing them, on certain occasions, from mingling with public life, and sharing the honest pleasures of society, they ought to be counseled not to be prodigal of themselves, nor to court these occasions; but carefully to avoid whatever may tend to compromise their dignity, or lead them into useless expense.

In several Normal Schools, the pupil-masters are taught to draw up *civil acts*, as a great many of them will one day become registrars at the mayoralty. Such functions very well correspond with those of teachers in small parishes where there are few acts to write, provided the registrar-teacher can abstain from mixing himself up with the *municipal passions*, often very violent in the smallest villages. Some, likewise, compete with the notary, and for a trifling salary, draw out contracts in private.

Land-surveying affords another resource; a very inconsiderable number can be employed in it, and little dependence should be placed on it.

In short, besides a life sober and modest, the cultivation of trees, the rearing of bees and silkworms, a little rural and domestic economy, private lessons, the functions of registrar, land-surveying, and, perhaps, book-binding and bandbox-making, are the methods by which teachers may ameliorate their condition,

without neglecting their duties, or derogating from their dignity. Th
however, still another resource which might be valuable: it is that
teachers may find in the assistance of their partners: if they knew well
choose—if they chose not such as are rich, but such as are economica
educated, good, and intelligent. I know some who are not only good
keepers, but who render great services to the community by the examp
lessons they give to the young girls of the district.

Teachers' wives, in the absence of sisters or governesses, properly so
ought to be able to undertake the teaching of needle-work and other
branches, as well as the management of infant-schools, throughout all t
districts. Their rank, as mothers, far from being an obstacle, would
them still better for the discharge of such functions; and when temporar
vented from accomplishing them themselves, they would easily find
the young girls they had trained, assistants to supply their place.

2. Communes (corresponding to our parishes, towns and districts) ma
at the disposal of the teacher a portion of ground capable for farming, an
and garden. To the school-house, which the 12th article of the orga
obliges every parish to provide for the teacher, ought always to be anne
the country, a piece of ground for a garden. If it were impossible to p
such a piece of ground, the parish might secure it on a long lease, or su
place by an annual indemnification of fifty francs to the teacher. In
parishes that possess the means, should be obliged to supplement th
legal salary, in proportion to the increase of their ordinary revenue.
general councils have voted funds to indemnify teachers who attend *con*
and to aid in the maintenance of libraries established by them. This e
ought to be generally imitated. Instead of limiting themselves to mak
the exact legal salary of teachers, when the revenues of the parishes a
cient, the counties ought to aid such as can not raise the salary of their
masters to the minimum of five hundred francs, comprising every
emolument. The majority of the general councils vote funds for impro
breed of horses and cattle; why could they not establish a few premi
the amelioration of mankind? Why could they not grant, every yea
prizes to the best teachers of each district—those whom the reports of
spectors and the committees recognized as the best? In fine, the par
and, they failing, the counties and the state—ought always to provide a
rate retiring provision for deserving teachers; so that they may not dr
tiring, when age unfits them for the maintenance of discipline. The
school authorities,—the departmental and county councils,—could add to
mium now required by law.

3. The nation alone can make thorough provision for the necessary
ration of teachers, who are now public functionaries, and intrusted with
ucation of the people. That they may discharge their functions with
and devotedness, it is necessary, after they have been properly traine
Normal Schools, and their morality and capacity well attested, to mak
a suitable appointment, so as to enable them to devote themselves excl
to their school-duties; to live honorably, though unostentatiously, and
tinue improving themselves. It is necessary, besides, to afford them a
when old age renders retreat imperative, and to remove from them all
hensions as to the lot of their families should they die prematurely—vic
their zeal in executing their painful duties.

Let me be permitted to observe, that the law of June, 1833—that
other respects, so full of wisdom, which grateful posterity will alway
with respect, and from which dates truly good primary instruction in F
that law, I say, whilst declaring popular schools a public obligation,
necessity, and raising teachers to the rank of communal and irrem
functionaries, has not done enough to render their condition what it oug
nor sufficiently armed the executive for the strict execution of the law.

The twelfth article says, that every parish teacher shall be provided
locality, properly situated for a habitation and the reception of pupils.
mentioned, elsewhere, how this order of the law has, in many places, be
cuted; and in what sense many parishes understand the word *properly*.

The same article guarantees the primary teacher a fixed salary of
two hundred francs: it is now pretty generally acknowledged, that the m
should be raised to three hundred francs: it results from calculations m

the Minister of Public Instruction in his last report, that to raise the minimum to three hundred francs, it would be requisite to add a million to the budget, and that the said sum would fall to the account of the department. I will not ask what is a million amid a budget of a thousand millions, and what is a million portioned out among the eighty-six counties; I know that the resources of France are great: her wants are likewise immense. But I will say, that the country should consider no sacrifice too costly to secure a service so important as that of popular instruction; and that it ought not, in this respect, to be behind any civilized nation.

The monthly fee, which, according to the fourteenth article, ought to be collected by tax-gatherers in the ordinary form, is the principal source of the teachers' income; but the law has left the fixing of it too much to the arbitrary inclination of the municipal councils. An additional paragraph inserted, upon the proposal of M. Antoine Passy, in the third article of the law of receipts, 1841, submits this fee and the number of gratuitous pupils to the approval of the prefects, who, on the advice of the district committees, may fix a minimum rate for the monthly fee, and a maximum one for the number of gratuitous admissions. The faithful execution of this legislative enactment would be a great benefit: let me hope, that in the next report of the minister, the lot of teachers shall appear every where ameliorated by its means. We must not believe, however, that it will be so productive as to exempt the legislature from raising the minimum fixed salary to three hundred francs.

The law has, at the same time, wished to guarantee the future of teachers. Two methods presented themselves for this object. To deduct from their fixed salary five per cent., as is done with the functionaries of the University, and thus to acquire for them a right to a retiring pension, or to establish simply a savings' or provident-box, in every respect like the ordinary ones; with this difference, that the deposits should be obligatory, and that they could not be withdrawn but at the retiring or death of the depositors. The first of these two systems has the disadvantage—in case of the more or less premature death of a teacher—of depriving his family of the amount deducted from his salary in favor of the surviving teachers. The second system, on the contrary, that of savings'-boxes, makes them run no chance of risk; having reached the end of their career, the product of their economy is restored either to themselves when they retire, or to their families, should they die in the discharge of their duties.

It is this last system which the law has sanctioned by establishing savings'-boxes, formed by the annual deduction of a twentieth from the fixed salary of each parish teacher. This system has been found fault with, for producing but a poor resource for a deserving teacher and his family. Indeed, the deduction of a twentieth from a fixed salary of two hundred francs will produce, of capital and interest, at the end of ten years, only a reserve of one hundred and twenty francs, five centimes; at the end of fifteen years, only a reserve of two hundred francs, fifteen centimes; at the end of twenty years, it will produce about three hundred francs; at the end of twenty-five years, a little more than four hundred francs; at the end of thirty years, about five hundred francs; and forty years' service are necessary to save, in this manner, a thousand francs. The same deduction made upon a fixed salary of three hundred francs will produce one hundred and eighty francs, at the end of ten years; four hundred and fifty francs, at the end of twenty years; eight hundred and forty francs, at the end of thirty years; and about one thousand four hundred and twenty-five francs, after forty years' service. A deduction of twenty francs per annum would amount, in ten years, to two hundred and forty francs; in twenty years, to about six hundred francs; in thirty years, to about one thousand one hundred and twenty francs; at the end of forty years, one thousand nine hundred francs.

We see that, in supposing each teacher to deposit twenty francs a year, this system would still leave much scope for improvement; since, after twenty or forty years' hard labor, it guarantees the teacher only from fifty to one hundred francs of revenue.

To render these saving-boxes of great importance, it would be necessary, in my opinion, to make the deduction of a twentieth, not only from their *fixed* salary, but likewise from the *casual* one, from the *monthly fee;* a thing easily done, as this fee must be collected by the ordinary tax-gatherers.

A mixed system would perhaps be preferable—a system that would unite, as

much as possible, the advantage of savings'-boxes and of deductions
the salaries, to constitute a fund for retiring pensions. For this
would be necessary to establish in each chief city, a box, which shou
for savings and deductions, to which the teachers, the districts, and th
should contribute, and which might receive gifts and legacies. I sha
more skillful financiers, the task of developing this idea, and of show
might be executed; I limit myself to laying its foundation. Let me
county composed of five hundred districts, and reckoning six hundre
public teachers: this is almost the condition of the Lower Rhine. I
pose that this county consents to disburse per annum into the schoo
sum of five thousand francs; that, on their part, the five hundred d
into it, annually, at an average, ten francs, which is one thousand
fine, that a deduction of fifteen francs is made from the salaries of t
dred and fifty teachers, which makes annually seven thousand seve
and fifty francs; let me suppose farther, that all these payments
gether to twenty thousand francs per annum, and we will have, a
ten years, without counting interest, or probable gifts and legacie
two hundred thousand francs; and, after twenty years, four hundre
francs; a capital which, placed at four per cent., would produce si
sand francs of interest. This interest would be divided, according t
stood ratio, between the deserving and infirm teachers, and the wido
phans of teachers deceased. To have a right to a retiring pension,
necessary to give proofs of infirmity, or of at least thirty years' service
would lose their claims on remarrying; and the children would ceas
their portion at twenty-one years of age. It should be understood t
tricts, small in number, which themselves might engage to prov
pensions to deserving teachers, should be at liberty to do so, and b
from contributing to the county-box.

This box—which should, especially and essentially, be a fund fo
would be a *savings'-box* only for such teachers as have been obliged
conduct, to resign their functions, or who voluntarily give them up
out being unwell, before having served thirty years. The amount o
they had paid in, should, without interest, be restored to them.
should be done with such as leave for situations elsewhere; their dis
should be transmitted to the box of the county to which they go

Every one would gain by realizing this scheme: there would be
tained only by such as abandoned their calling, or by children bec
at the death of their fathers. The enactment, again, might, accor
cumstances, stipulate for some succor to the latter, and even in f
children of destitute teachers. But to render such a box truly pro
concurrence of the counties and districts is indispensable. We m
likewise, that many friends of popular education would assist it, e
the commencement. After twenty or twenty-five years, the box wo
of itself, and without any other fresh contributions, save of those co

In short, what is necessary to render the condition of the teacher
ble, is, in the first place, a convenient dwelling-house, with a gar
rural districts; then a fixed salary of at least 300 francs, with a ca
proportioned to the number of scholars, and resulting from a month
by the municipal councils, subject to the approval of his prefects, an
by the tax-gatherers; finally, a county-box for retiring pensions, an
the widows and orphans, supplied by the concurrence of the counti
tricts, and the teachers. Encouragements, premiums adjudged by t
to the most deserving, and succor granted to the most necessitou
would usefully complete this system.

The medals which at our anniversaries are distributed every yea
no real value until their recipients are beyond the reach of want.
distinctions add, besides, to the consideration of such as are the
them; and they contribute more to the interests of the body to whi
long, than to those of the men who have been decorated by them.
therefore, be very useful, that, from time to time, this *bullion rec*
which M. Guizot refers in his beautiful circular, attest to the most
and devoted teacher that the *government watches over their services*
how to honor them.

NORMAL SCHOOL

OF

THE FRERES CHRETIENS, OR CHRISTIAN BROTHERS.

ANY description of popular education in Europe would be incomplete, which should not give prominence to the Institute of the Christian Brothers—or the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine—including in that term the earliest professional school for the training of teachers in Europe; one of the most remarkable body of teachers devoted exclusively and without pay to the education of the children of the poor that the world has ever seen,—and the introduction of improved methods in the organization, instruction, and government of elementary schools.

The Institute was established as a professional school in 1681, and to Abbe John Baptist de la Salle, belongs the high honor not only of founding it, but of so infusing into its early organization his own profound conviction of the Christ-like character of its mission among the poor, that it has retained for nearly two centuries the form and spirit of its origin. This devoted Christian teacher, was born at Rheims on the 30th of April, 1651, of parents distinguished alike by their piety and their high social position. To his mother he owed a prayerful and watchful home training. and to his father every facility for obtaining a university education. He was early distinguished for his scholarly attainments and maturity of character; and at the age of seventeen, before he had completed his full course of theological study, he was appointed Canon in the Cathedral church of Rheims. From the first, he became interested in the education of the young, and especially of the poor, as the most direct way of leading them to a Christian life;—and with this view before he was twenty-one years old, he assumed the direction of two charities, devoted to female education. From watching the operation of these schools, conducted by teachers without professional training, without plan, and without mutual sympathy and aid, he conceived the design of bringing the teachers of this class of schools from the neighboring parishes into a community for their moral and professional improvement. For this purpose, he invited them first to meet, and then to lodge at his house, and afterwards, about the year 1681, he purchased a house for their special accommodation. Here, out of school hours and during their holydays, they spent their time in the practice of religious duties, and in mutual conferences on the work in which they were engaged. About this period, a large number of free schools for the poor were established in the neighboring towns; and applications were constantly made to the Abbe, for teachers formed under his training, care, and influence. To meet this demand, and make himself more directly useful in the field of

Christian education, he resigned his benefice, that he might
whole attention to the work. To close the distance between
having a high social position and competence from his father'
and the poor schoolmasters to whom he was constantly preach
unreserved consecration of themselves to their vocation—he not
signed his canonry, with its social and pecuniary advantages,
tributed his patrimony, in a period of scarcity, in relieving the ne
of the poor, and in providing for the education of their childr
then placed himself on the footing equality—as to occupati
ner of life, and entire dependence on the charity of others—
schoolmasters of the poor. The annals of education or religio
but few such examples of practical self-denial, and entire consec
a sense of duty. His reasons for the step are thus set forth in
orandum found among his papers.

1. "If I have resources against misery, I can not preach to them an e
fidence in Providence.
2. "In remaining as I am, they will always find a specious pretext i
enue to warrant their diffidence.
3. "A temptation, so plausible in appearance, can not ultimately fall t
the effects which the demon desires; and the masters in part or in who
sert the schools, and leave me without persons to conduct them.
4. "The rumor of their desertion will spread through the city: and
would have a vocation to become masters, will be attacked by the sam
tions, even before they enter.
5. "The schools without permanent masters will fail, and the Ins
become buried under their ruins, never more to be re-established.
6. "Should none of these anticipations be realized, can I be superio
masters without ceasing to be a canon? are the two duties compatible
renounce either.
7. "Now, in this choice, what should determine me? The greate
God, the greater service of the church, my own perfection, and the sa
souls. If I consult but such motives, so worthy of a priest of the Lor
resign my canonry to take upon me the care of the schools, and to for
capable of conducting them.
8. "I feel no further attraction in the vocation of a canon; and thou
entered upon it legitimately, it appears to me that God now calls me to
it. He has placed me in my present situation; but does he not show m
which merits a preference?"

Having completed his act of resignation and self-imposed pov
assembled his teachers, announced to them what he had done, a
with them a *Te Deum*. After a retreat—a period set apart t
and fasting,—continued for seventeen days, they devoted them
the consideration of the best course to give unity, efficiency, and
nence to their plans of Christian education for the poor. They
the name of "The Brothers of the Christian Doctrine," as ex
of their vocation—which by usage became to be abbrevia
"Christian Brothers." They took on themselves vows of pover
acy, and obedience for three years. They prescribed to thems
most frugal fare, to be provided in turns by each other. They
at that time some rules of behavior, which have since been
rated into the fundamental rules of order, viz., not to speak o
dividual in censorious terms—not to contradict, or correct ea

this being reserved to the brother-director—not to jest, or speak of idle and frivolous topics, but to introduce such matters only as might lead to the love of God and practice of virtue—to exhibit equal affection for all poor scholars, and more for the poor than the rich—to give a continual example of modesty and of all the virtues which these pupils ought to practice; and never to punish when they were irritated.

Their dress was fixed by a sort of accident. The mayor of Rheims saw some of the brothers badly clothed; and, as it was the depth of winter, he feared lest their health might suffer, from want of defense from the inclemencies of the weather. He represented this to the founder, who accordingly procured some coarse black cloth, part of which he got made into cloaks, and part into *soutans*, such as were worn in former times by ecclesiastics—closed in front by hooks and eyes. To this he added a collar of coarse linen, strong shoes, and a hat of ample dimensions, which is the dress still worn by the brothers.

Ardent zeal, like that of these Christian schoolmasters, is liable, if not joined with discretion, to run into excess. Some of the brothers carried their austerities so far that their health was destroyed, and three of them fell victims to their indiscreet ardor. This left a sad blank in the establishment. However, in spite of these losses, the number of the brothers soon began rapidly to increase, and still more the demand for their services; so great was their reputation for skill, patience, and indefatigableness in teaching.

From the great increase of the establishment, M. de la Salle resolved to vacate the office of principal. He also judged it necessary, for his soul's health, to be subject like the rest, to the orders of a superior. Accordingly, he persuaded the brothers to elect brother Felix, as his successor. He was the first to greet the new superior; and, for a time, became an ordinary brother. He swept the house in his turn; washed the utensils; and submitted himself implicitly to all the rules of the institution. However, it was judged expedient that he should resume the office of superior, which he did from a sense of duty, though with great reluctance.

The life which this pious man had chosen was not without its disappointments and drawbacks. His former friends, and even his relations, scoffed at his pious labors, and publicly insulted him; all of which he bore with patience. Some of the younger members of the institute were unable to command the respect of the children under their instruction; and, in the hope of maintaining discipline, had recourse to undue severity. M. de la Salle knew the source of the evil: he exhorted his disciple to *watch over themselves;* to restrain their impatience; and to make themselves beloved by mildness. His instruction and example had the desired effect; and the leading characteristic of the Christian Brothers is, that imperturbable patience, joined with kind benevolence, which are the most valuable qualities of the teachers of youth. *If the teachers would but watch over themselves, they would soon learn to influence others.*

The demand for teachers, in connection with the brothers, exceeded the supply; and to remedy this, those who stood in need of teachers sought out young men of good dispositions to attend on the instructions of M. de la Salle. These young candidates were lodged and instructed by the most experienced brothers, and thus received a normal training in their future duties.

In 1688, M. de la Salle, with two brothers, took charge of a school in the parish of St. Sulpice, in Paris. They found the schools in great disorder; without regulation, as the time of opening and closing, the order and length of lessons, and without discipline. By skill and patience the school was improved, and a desire created for similar schools in other parishes. But all this was done at a time when some of the brothers proved weak and faithless; and the founder was under the necessity of

reorganizing this institute, and providing for its permanence by
tiate at Vaugirard, near Paris, in which pious young persons wl
to be a duty and a pleasure to teach and labor for the poor, m
through a course of trial and preparation for the self-denying li
brothers. He accordingly associated with him two brothers, a
together consecrated themselves entirely to God, "to procure b
power, and all our care, the establishment of Christian schools,
this purpose make vow of association and union, to procure ar
tain this establishment, without liberty to swerve, even thoug
should remain but three in the society, and that we should be ol
ask alms, and live on bread only." And they did persevere in
of scarcity, when they lived on herbs only, against the misappre
of good men, and the interested opposition of the teachers of Pa
found that the gratuitous and skillful labors of the brothers in
with their emoluments. The schoolmasters of Chârtres, whe
la Salle had sent six brothers to open a large school, succeed
taining from the bishop an order, that no children should be
into this school unless they were inscribed on the list of pauper
regulation was fatal to the school. In 1700, a school was op
Calais.

In 1699, M. de la Salle attached to the novitiate in Paris, a
school for apprentices and other young persons under twenty
age. In these schools, besides oral instruction in the catech
Bible, lessons in reading, arithmetic, and drawing, were given
whose early education had been entirely neglected. But he
allowed to continue these schools many years without opposit
1706, the society of writing masters presented a memorial to th
of police, charging the brothers with keeping, under pretext of
schools not legally authorized, to the prejudice of those that w
asking if these schools were to be tolerated, they should be co
those only who were paupers, and that such children should b
only those things which were suitable to the condition of their
They succeeded, and at a subsequent application, obtained a g
hibiting parents who had means from sending to free schools.
efforts the Sunday schools were broken up, after some six years

In 1702, the first step was taken to establish an Institute a
under the mission of one of the brothers, Gabriel Drolin, who aft
of poverty, was made conducter of one of the charitable schools
by Pope Clement XI. This school became afterwards the fo
of the house which the brothers have had in Rome since the po
of Benedict XIII., who conferred on the institute, the constitut
religious order. In 1703, under the pecuniary aid of M. Chatea
and the countenance of the archbishop, M. de Gontery, a sc
opened at Avignon. The archbishop, in a certificate addresse
Pope in 1720, says: "since the establishment of the gratuitous
in the city of Avignon, the brothers have already discharged the
with zeal and assiduity. The public have derived great adv

from their application to the Christian education of the children; and their modesty and purity of morals have, at all times, given singular edification."

In 1704 a school was opened at Marseilles, for the children of sailors, under the care of two brothers. They were so successful, that in 1735 their number was increased to 10, and they were received into the regular communities, or guilds, of the city.

In 1705, two teachers, under the invitation of the archbishop of Rouen, opened a school in that city, and in the course of a few months, M. de la Salle, decided to remove and establish his Novitiate there. But here the established order of schoolmasters interposed their claim against the new comers, and it was only after submitting to the following conditions prescribed by a committee of the great hospital, to whom the right of granting permission to teach belonged by charter.

1. That the brothers should be present when the poor of the city hospital were rising and going to bed; and that they should recite for them morning and evening prayers.
2. That they should, moreover, instruct them, and attend also to the four large schools of the city.
3. They were to return from the schools, though situated in the most remote parts of the city, to take their refrection at the hospital.
4. On their return from the schools, they were to serve the poor at table.
5. Five brothers were to perform all these duties.

The brothers acceded to these terms. And in the neighborhood established, in 1705, a novitiate on an estate called St. You—through the aid of Madame de Louvois. Here candidates for admission to the community came and entered the novitiate—here he renewed the annual retreats, in which the brothers who were now dispersed abroad in different cities, reassembled and renewed their vows of poverty and obedience.

In 1710, a priest of Vans, Vincent de St. John Delzé du Rouze, having witnessed the success of the schools at Avignon, made provision in his will for the support of a school to be taught by the brothers, "persuaded as I am, that the greater part of young children fall into irregularity of morals, for want of a religious education."

In the same year a school was established at Moulins, where the Abbé Languet was so pleased with their methods of instruction, that he engaged the senior brother to instruct the children in the church of St. Peter, the principal church in the town, and required all the young ecclesiastics to attend on his instruction with a view of acquiring his methods. The last labor of M. de la Salle, was to assist in establishing a school at Boulogne under the auspices of M. de la Cocherie, and the Marquis de Colembert.

In the year 1716, he urged the acceptance of his resignation as superior over the community; and brother Bartholomew was elected in his stead. At this time, the rules of the order were revised and confirmed. He died on the 7th of April, 1719, at the Institute of St. You, near Rouen; a portion of the last year of his life was devoted to a class of little children, confided by their parents to the care of the brothers for their

training. Born with a large endowment of mental faculties, wl
had enriched by studious and careful culture, after a life of la
usefulness, he died poor, having in possession only the New Tes
the Imitation of Christ, a crucifix, a breviary, and his beads, on t
of April, 1719, in the sixty-eight year of his age.

In 1724, the society obtained a corporate existence under letters
from Louis XV., and early in 1725 the rules of the institute were a
by Pope Benedict XIII., and the community raised to the dign
religious order. The Bulls of the Pope were approved by th
council, and immediately accepted by the society. St. Yon co
to be the residence of the superior general until 1770, when
changed to Paris, and in 1778 to Melun. In 1777, the society
fund to sustain the aged and infirm brothers who could no long
in their vocation as schoolmasters, and at the same time estab
normal school at Melun, for the training and education of no
In addition to the common or ordinary gratuitous day schools,
and poor, as taught by the brothers, there were two classes of b
schools under their care—the first consisted of lads of noble and
table parents, whose early profligacy and bad character, req
separation from home; and the second was composed of chil
parents in easy circumstances. There was one of the first class
ing schools at St. Yon, and its establishment was one of the co
on which the lease, and afterwards the purchase of the prope
obtained. It was a sort of reform school. Of this last class, the
five or six, which were established in consideration of liberal s
tions in aid of the day schools, for the benefit of the children of
scribers. These schools did not fall within the regular plan
brothers, but were maintained until their dispersion in 1792.

In 1789, the national assembly prohibited vows to be made in
nities; and 1790, suppressed all religious societies; and in 1791, t
tute was dispersed. At that date there were one hundred and
houses, and over one thousand brothers, actively engaged in th
of the school room. The continuity of the society was secure
houses established in Italy, to which many of the brothers fled, a
which Pope Pius VI., appointed one of the directors vicar-
The houses were suppressed in 1798, on the success of the Fren
and of the once flourishing society, there remained in 1799 only
houses of Ferrara and Orvietto. In 1801, on the conclusion of
cordat between the Pope and the government, the society was
in France by the opening of a school at Lyons; and in 1815,
sumed their habit, and opened a novitiate, the members of which
empt from military service. At the organization of the university
the institute was legally reorganized, and from that time has in
in numbers and usefulness. Since 1833, they have opened
schools for adults in Paris, and the large provincial towns. T
teachers for this class of schools, a preparatory novitiate was est
in 1837 at Paris, which has since became the normal school of the

In 1842, there were 390 houses, (of which 326 were in France) with 3,030 brothers, and 585 novices. There were 642 schools with 163,700 children, besides evening schools with 7,800 adults in attendance, and three reformatory schools with 2,000 convicts, under instruction.

The self-devotion and missionary spirit of the Christian Brothers, and the religious influence which pervades their schools have attracted the attention, and won the admiration of every visitor

The following sketch is taken from Kay's "*Education of the Poor in England and Europe*," published by J. Hatchard and Son, London, 1846.

"The Frères are a society of men devoted entirely and exclusively to the education of the poor. They take the vow of celibacy, renounce all the pleasures of society and relationship, enter into the brotherhood, and retain only two objects in life,—their own spiritual advancement and the education of the people. But before a young man can be received into the society, he is required to pass an intermediate period of education and trial, during which he is denied all the ordinary pleasures of life, *is accustomed to the humblest and most servile occupations*, and receives an excellent and most liberal education. During this period, which lasts three years, he is carefully instructed in the principles of the Roman Catholic religion, in the sciences, in the French and Latin languages, in history, geography, arithmetic, writing, &c., and at the same time he is required to perform the most humble household duties. The Frères and the young men who are passing through their first novitiate, manage in turn all the household duties, as the cooking, the preparation of the meals, and all the ordinary duties of domestic servants; whilst their simple and perfectly plain costume, their separation from the world and from their friends, who are only permitted to visit them at long intervals, accustom them to the arduous and self-denying life they are called upon afterward to lead in the primary schools.

By these means they form a character admirably fitted for the important office of a schoolmaster.

The Frères never leave the walls of one of their houses except in company. One Frère is not permitted to travel without being accompanied by another; and when a department or commune requires their services in a primary school, three are sent out, one of whom manages their domestic concerns, whilst the other two conduct the school classes. If, however, there is in any town more than one school conducted by Frères, they all live together under the superintendence of an elder Frère, who is styled director.

If at the end of the first novitiate the young man is still willing and desirous of entering the brotherhood, he is admitted by gradual advancement and preparation into the bosom of the society. He is then at the disposition of the principal of the order, who sends him, in company with two brothers, to some district which has demanded a master from them.

What remains of their salaries after defraying the expenses of their frugal table, is returned to the treasury of the society, by which it is expended in the printing of their school-books, in the various expenses of their central establishment, and in works of charity.

Before a Frère is allowed to conduct a primary school, he is obliged to obtain, in like manner as the other teachers, a brevet de capacité; government demanding in all cases assurance of the secular education of the teachers, and of the character of the instruction given by them in their schools. All their schools are of course open as well to the inspectors of government, who visit, examine, and report upon them, as to their own, who strictly examine the conduct and progress of the Frères in their different schools, and report to the principal.

The following table will show the number of schools condu
Frères in 1844, and the number of children educated in them:—

	No. of Schools.	No. of Chi
France,	658	169,50
Belgium,	41	9,53
Savoy,	28	5,11
Piedmont,	30	6,49
Pontifical States,	20	4,19
Canada,	6	1,84
Turkey,	2	5
Switzerland,	2	4
Total,	787	197,6

The education given in their schools is very liberal and the b
very good. The Frères consider that if they *neglect to develope*
lect of their pupils, they can not advance their religious education
torily; they consequently spare no pains to attain the former
ment, in order that the latter, which is the great end of their tea
of all instruction whatsoever, may not be retarded.

The following are among the regulations of the Society:

1. The Institution des Frères des Ecoles Chrétiennes is a society v
fesses to conduct schools gratuitously. The design of this institution
a Christian education to children. With this object in view, the Frèr
schools where children may be placed under the management of ma
morning until evening, so that the masters may be able to teach th
honestly and uprightly, by instructing them in the principles of our
gion, by teaching them Christian precepts, and by giving them su
sufficient instruction.

2. The spirit of the institution is a spirit of faith which ought to en
members to attribute all to God, to act as continually in the sight of C
perfect conformity to His orders and His will. The members of th
tion should be filled with an ardent zeal for the instruction of childre
preservation in innocence and the fear of God, and for their entire
from sin.

3. The institution is directed by a *superior*, who is nominated for lif
two assistants, who compose his council, and aid him in governing
These assistants live in the same house with him, assist at his co
render him aid whenever necessary.

4. The superior is elected by ballot by the directors assembled at th
houses; the two assistants are chosen in the same manner, and these
office ten years, and can then be re-elected.

5. The superior may be deposed, but only by a general chapter, an
causes.

6. This chapter is composed of thirty of the oldest Frères, or dire
principal houses, who assemble by right once every ten years, and v
is deemed necessary to convoke an extraordinary meeting.

7. The private houses are governed by Frères-directors, who are ap
three years, unless it appears advisable to the superior and his a
name a shorter period, or to recall them before the end of it.

8. The superior names the visitors. They are appointed for three
make a round of visits once every year. They require of the dire
count of their receipts and expenses, and as soon as their visits are
they present a report to their superior of the necessary changes and
to be made by him.

9. No Frère can take priest's orders, or pretend to any ecclesias
neither can he wear a surplice or serve in the churches, except at c
but they confine themselves to their vocation, and live in silence, in
in entire devotion to their duties.

10. They are bound to the institution by three simple religious v
are taken at first for only three years, as well as by a vow of persev
a renouncement of any recompense for the instruction they give. T
can only be annulled after dispensation granted by the Pope.

11. They are not admitted to take the vows until they have been at least two years in the institution, and until they have passed one year in the novitiate and one year in the school.

12. They are only admitted after a severe examination, and then only by a majority of the votes of the Frères of the house where they have passed their novitiate.

13. There are two novitiates, one where they admit young men between 13 and 16 years of age, the other for older men. But all young men who are admitted below the age of 25 renew their vows every year till they attain that age.

14. They banish from the society every Frère who conducts himself unbecomingly. But this is only done for grave offenses, and by a majority of votes at a general chapter.

15. The same regulation is observed when a Frère desires to leave the society and to obtain a dispensation from his vows.

16. The Frères do not establish themselves in the dioceses without the consent of the bishops, and they acknowledge their authority as their spiritual government, and that of the magistrates as their civil government.

19. The Frères shall instruct their pupils after the method prescribed to them by the institution.

20. They shall teach their scholars to read French and Latin, and to write.

21. They shall teach them also orthography, and arithmetic, the matins and vespers, le Pater, l'Ave Maria, le Credo et le Confiteor, and the French translations of these prayers, the Commandments of God and of the Church, the responses of the holy mass, the Catechism, the duties of a Christian, and the maxims and precepts that our Lord has left us in the holy Testament.

22. They shall teach the Catechism half an hour daily.

27. The Frères shall not receive from the scholars, or their parents, either money or any other present, at any time.

30. They shall exhibit an equal affection for all their poor scholars, and more for the poor than for the rich; because the object of the institution is the instruction of the poor.

31. They shall endeavor to give their pupils, by their conduct and manners, a continual example of modesty, and of all the other virtues which they ought to be taught, and which they ought to practise.

37. The Frères shall take the greatest care that they very rarely punish their children, as they ought to be persuaded that, by refraining as much as possible from punishment, they will best succeed in properly conducting a school, and in establishing order in it.

38. When punishment shall have become absolutely necessary, they shall take the greatest care to punish with the greatest moderation and presence of mind, and never to do it under the influence of a hasty movement, or when they feel irritated.

39. They shall watch over themselves that they never exhibit the least anger or impatience, either in their corrections, or in any of their words or actions; as they ought to be convinced, that if they do not take these precautions the scholars will not profit from their correction, (and the Frères never ought to correct except with the object of benefiting their children) and God will not give the correction his blessing.

40. They shall not at any time give to their scholars any injurious epithet or insulting name.

41. They shall also take the greatest care not to strike their scholars with hand, foot, or stick, nor to push them rudely.

42. They shall take great care not to pull their ears, their hair, or their noses, nor to fling any thing at them; these kinds of corrections ought not to be practised by the Frères, as they are very indecent and opposed to charity and Christian kindness.

43. They shall not correct their scholars during prayers, or at the time of catechising, except when they cannot defer the correction.

They shall not use corporal punishment, except when every other means of correction has failed to produce the right effect.

58. The Frère-director shall be inspector over all the schools in his town; and when more than one inspector is necessary for one house of Frères, the other inspector shall report to the Frère-director twice a week on the conduct of each Frère, on the condition of his class, and on the progress of his scholars.

The following remarks on the Training School of this Brothe
Teachers are taken from "the Second Report of J. P. Kay Shutt
on the Schools for the Training of Parochial Schoolmasters at
sea."

We had frequently visited the schools of the Brothers of the Christ
trine in France, and had spent much time in the examination of the
mères, or Mother-School. Our attention was attracted to these schoo
gentle manners and simple habits which distinguished the Frères;
sympathy for children, and the religious feeling which pervaded their
ary schools. Their schools are certainly deficient in some of the m
organization and method; and there are subjects on which the instruct
be more complete and exact; but each master was, as it were, a par
children around him. The school resembled a harmonious family.

The self-denying industry of these pious men was remarkable. T
of their order would be deemed severe in this country. In the Moth
(where they all reside,) they rise at four. After private meditation,
lic devotions in the chapel occupy the early hours of the morning.
mestic drudgery of the household succeeds. They breakfast at seve
in the schools of the great cities of France at nine. When the routin
school-keeping is at an end, after a short interval for refreshment and
they open their evening schools where hundreds of the adult populatio
instruction, not merely in reading, writing, and the simplest element
bers, but in singing, drawing, geography; the mensuration of planes a
the history of France, and in religion. Their evening schools do no
ten. The public expenditure on account of their services is one-third
remuneration of an elementary schoolmaster in France, and they de
lives, constrained by the influence of a religious feeling, under a rule o
but without a vow, to the education of the poor.

The unquestionable self-denial of such a life; the attachment of the
and of the adult pupils to their instructors, together with the constan
the all-subduing presence of Christian principle, rendered the mean
by the Christian Brothers, for the training of their novices, a matte
interest and inquiry.

The Mother School differs in most important respects from a Norm
but the extent of this difference is not at first sight apparent, and is o
results of our experience which we wish to submit.

The Mother School is an establishment comprising arrangements
struction and training of novices; for the residence of the brother
engaged in the active performance of the duties of their order, as
elementary day and evening schools; and it affords an asylum, into
gradually retire from the fatigues and cares of their public labors,
proaches, or infirmities accumulate, to spend the period of sickness
tude in the tranquillity of the household provided for them, and
consolations of their brethren. The brothers constitute a family,
every domestic service, ministering to the sick and infirm, and asse
devotion daily in their chapel.

Their novices enter about the ages of twelve or fourteen. They a
sume the dress of the order, and enter upon the self-denying routine of
hold. The first years of their novitiate are of course devoted to such
instruction as is necessary to prepare them for their future duties
of the poor. Their habits are formed, not only in the course of this i
but by joining the religious exercises; performing the household d
enjoying the benefit of constant intercourse with the elder brethren of
School, who are at once their instructors and friends. In this life of
the superior of the Mother School has opportunities of observing and as
the minutest traits of character, which indicate their comparative qu
for the future labors of the order; nor is this vigilance relaxed, but rath
ed, when they first quit the private studies of the Mother School, to
ally initiated in their public labors as instructors of the people.

Such of the novices as are found not to possess the requisite qua
especially as respects the moral constitution necessary for the duti
order, are permitted to leave the Mother School to enter upon othe

During the period of the novitiate, such instances are not rare, but we have reason to believe, that they seldom occur after the brother has acquired maturity.

As their education in the Mother School proceeds, the period devoted every day to their public labors in the elementary schools is enlarged; and they thus, under the eye of elder brethren, assisted by their example and precepts, gradually emerge from the privacy of their novitiate to their public duties.

In all this there is not much that differs from the life of a young pupil in a Normal School; but, at this point, the resemblance ceases, and a great divergence occurs.

The brother, whose novitiate is at an end, continues a member of the household of the Mother School. He has only advanced to a higher rank. He is surrounded by the same influences. The daily routine which formed his domestic and religious habits continues. His mind is fed, and his purposes are strengthened by the conversation and examples of his brethren, and his conduct is under the paternal eye of his superior. Under such circumstances, personal identity is almost absorbed in the corporate life by which he is surrounded. The strength of the order supports his weakness: the spirit of the order is the pervading principle of his life: he thinks, feels, and acts, by an unconscious inspiration from every thing by which he is surrounded, in a calm atmosphere of devotion and religious labor. All is prescribed; and a pious submission, a humble faith, a patient zeal, and a self-denying activity are his highest duties.

Contrast his condition with that of a young man leaving a Normal School at the age of eighteen or nineteen, after three or four years of comparative seclusion, under a regimen closely resembling that of the Mother School. At this age, it is necessary that he should be put in charge of an elementary school, in order that he may earn an independence.

The most favorable situation in which he can be placed, because remote from the grosser forms of temptation, and therefore least in contrast with his previous position, is the charge of a rural school. For the tranquil and eventless life of the master of a rural school, such a training is not an unfit preparation His resources are not taxed by the necessity for inventing new means to meet the novel combinations which arise in a more active state of society. His energy is equal to the task of instructing the submissive and tractable, though often dull children of the peasantry; and the gentle manners and quiet demeanor, which are the uniform results of his previous education, are in harmony with the passionless life of the seclusion into which he is plunged. His knowledge and his skill in method are abundantly superior to the necessities of his position, and the unambitious sense of duty which he displays attracts the confidence and wins the regard of the clergyman of the parish and of his intelligent neighbors. For such a life, we have found even the young pupils whom we introduced into the training schools at their foundation well fitted, and we have preferred to settle them, as far as we could, on the estates of our personal friends, where we are assured they have succeeded. Those only who have entered the Normal School at adult age, have been capable of successfully contending with the greater difficulties of town schools.

But we are also led by our experience to say, that such a novitiate does not prepare a youth of tender age to encounter the responsibilities of a large town or village school, in a manufacturing or mining district. Such a position is in the most painful contrast with his previous training. He exchanges the comparative seclusion of his residence in the Normal School for the difficult position of a public instructor, on whom many jealous eyes are fixed. For the first time he is alone in his profession; unaided by the example of his masters; not stimulated by emulation with his fellows; removed from the vigilant eye of the Principal of the school; separated from the powerful influences of that corporate spirit, which impelled his previous career, yet placed amidst difficulties, perplexing even to the most mature experience, and required to tax his invention to meet new circumstances, before he has acquired confidence in the unsustained exercise of his recently developed powers. He has left the training school for the rude contact of a coarse, selfish, and immoral populace, whose gross appetites and manners render the narrow streets in his neighborhood scenes of impurity. He is at once brought face to face with an ignorant and corrupt multitude, to whose children he is to prove a leader and guide.

His difficulties are formidable. His thoughts are fixed on the deformity of this monstrous condition of society. It is something to have this s extremity of the evil, but to confront it, that conviction should beco to persevering exertion. We have witnessed this failure, and we c such difficulties can only be successfully encountered by masters age and experience.

The situation of the novice of a Mother School, founded in the cent manufacturing city, is in direct contrast with that of the young changing his secluded training in a Normal School for the unaided great town school.

If such a Mother School were founded in the midst of one of commercial towns, under the charge of a Principal of elevated ch acquirements; if he had assembled around him devoted and humble to spend their lives in reclaiming the surrounding population by the and management of schools for the poor; and into this society a introduced at a tender age, instructed, trained, and reared in the ha ties of his profession; gradually brought into contact with the ac the healing of which his life was to be devoted; never abandoned comparatively feeble resources, but always feeling himself the mis body able to protect, ready to console, and willing to assist and in in such a situation, his feebleness would be sustained by the strengt ration animated with the vitality of Christian principle.

We are far from recommending the establishment of such a school cess of which we think we perceive insurmountable obstacles in th The only form in which a similar machinery could exist in England Town Normal School, in which all the apprentices or pupil tea several elementary schools might lodge, and where, under the supe of a Principal, their domestic and religious habits might be formed. ters of the elementary schools might be associates of the Normal conduct the instruction of the pupil teachers, in the evening or morning, when free from the duties of their schools. The whole b ters would thus form a society, with the Principal at their head, a ployed in the practical daily duties of managing and instructing s also by their connection with the Town Normal School, keeping i contributing to promote the general interests of elementary educati ing a body of assistant masters. If a good library were collected in institution, and lectures from time to time delivered on appropriate the whole body of masters and assistants, or, which would be better school were founded, which might be attended by the masters and n ced assistants, every improvement in method would thus be rapi through the elementary schools of towns.

PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOLS

OF VERSAILLES AND DIJON.

THE Primary Normal School of Versailles is for the Department of Seine and Oise. It comprises within its ample premises[*] several establishments for the instruction and practice of teachers. The school itself contains eighty pupils under regular instruction throughout the year, and furnishes a two months' course to adult schoolmasters. The establishments for practice begin with the infant school, and rise through the primary to the grade of primary superior. Of the elementary schools, one affords the young teachers an example of the method of mutual, and another of simultaneous instruction. The primary superior school had been recently established, at the date of my visit, in 1837. There is, besides, an evening department for the elementary instruction of adults, taught by the pupils of the Normal School, and also a school of design, which is established here rather for convenience than as properly belonging to the range of the institution.

The whole establishment is under the immediate control of a director (Mr. Le Brun), subject to the authority of a committee, and of the university, the inspectors of which make regular visits. The committee inspect the school by sub-committees once a month, visiting the recitation-rooms of the professors without giving special notice—a plan much to be preferred to that of stated visits. If a member of a committee desires questions to be put upon any particular points, he calls upon the professor to extend his examination, or asks questions himself. The director examines the classes frequently, or is present at the lessons. There are eight professors for the various courses, and two "repeaters" (répétiteurs), these latter superintending the pupils when not with the professors, and giving them assistance if required. The repeaters are responsible for the execution of the order of the day in the institution, and for the police, and one of them sleeps in each of the two dormitories. Some of the teachers in the Normal School also give instruction in the model schools, and have charge of the pupils while engaged in the practical exercises. The domestic economy is under the charge of the director, but he is allowed an assistant, who actually discharges the duty of superintendence, and who has brought this department into most excellent order.[†]

There are a certain number of gratuitous places, to which pupils are admitted by competition, those found best prepared at the examination for admission having the preference. Pay pupils are also received at a very moderate rate,[‡] but are exactly on the same footing, in reference to the duties of the institution, with the former. Young men who wish to compete for a place, and are not sufficiently prepared, may enter as pay pupils, and thus receive instruction directly applicable to their object. The age of admission is, by rule, between sixteen and twenty-one, but the former limit is considered too early for profitable entrance. The qualifications for admission consist in a thorough knowledge of the subjects taught in the elementary schools.

The period of instruction is two years. The first year is devoted to the

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[*] Used under a former dynasty to accommodate the hounds of Charles X.

[†] During the first year of the institution, the fare of each student cost fifty-nine centimes (twelve cents) per day. They had meat twice a day, except on the fasts of the Church.

[‡] Five hundred francs, or about one hundred dollars, per annum.

revision of elementary studies, and the second to an extension of th
to theoretical and practical instruction in the science and art of t
The subjects of revision or instruction are, reading, writing, linear
geography, history, the drawing of maps, morals and religion, voca
arithmetic, elementary physics, terraculture, and pedagogy.

The religious instruction is given by an ecclesiastic, who is almon
school; it includes lessons on the doctrines and history of the chur
twice per week. Protestants are not required to attend these les
receive instruction out of the institution from a minister of their c
fession.

Physical education is conducted by means of exercises in gymna
walks, and the practice of gardening. In summer the pupils bath
week. The gymnastic exercises are taught by the more expert
the scholars of the model schools, and appear to have taken we
them.

The pupils study in a room common to all, and the degree of
which they pay, and their conduct, are marked, according to a unifo
by the superintending "repeater," and reported daily to the directo
every month the professor examines these classes on the studies of
month, and reports the standing. Marks are also given for great p
and attention, which are reported with the standing. These m
those of the examination, are summed up, and when they amount
tain number for the month, the pupil is entitled to a premium. Th
ums consist of books uniformly bound, and accompanied by a c
Report is made of these pupils to the minister of public instructio
record may serve them when desirous to secure a particular pla
director assembles the school to hear an account of these monthl
and makes such remarks as they may suggest.

Besides the more usual school implements, this institution has a
small collection of physical and chemical apparatus, of technologi
mens, already of considerable interest, and of models of agricultu
ments. There are also two gardens, one of which is laid out to
purposes of systematic instruction in horticulture, the other of w
tains specimens of agricultural products, and a ground for gymna
cises. The pupils work by details of three at a time, under the di
the gardener, in cultivating flowers, fruits, vegetables, &c. They
use of a set of carpenters' and joiners' tools, with which they have
their own library in a very creditable way.[*] In the second year th
lectures on the science and art of teaching, and in turn give instr
the schools, under the direction of the teachers. Their perform
subsequently criticised for their improvement.

The order of the day in summer is as follows:

The pupils rise at five, wash, make up their beds, and clean the
tories, in two divisions, which alternate; meet in the study-hall at
five for prayers, breakfast, engage in studies or recitation until
and have recreation until two; study or recite until four; have ex
recreation, sup, study, and engage in religious reading and pra
retire at ten, except in special cases. Before meals there is a grace
during meals one of the pupils reads aloud.

In distributing the time devoted to study and recitation, an hour
is made to precede a lesson, when the latter requires specific pre
when, on the contrary, the lesson requires after-reflection to fix its
or consists of a lecture, of which the notes are to be written out,
hour follows the lesson. The branches of a mechanical nature

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[*] A carpenter who came to attend the evening classes was found by the director s
that he advised him to prepare for the school. The young man succeeded in ent
annual competition, and subsequently, on leaving the school, received one of the b
ments of his year as a teacher.

spersed with the intellectual. The students of the second year are employed, in turn, in teaching, and are relieved from other duties during the hours devoted to the schools of practice.

On Sunday, after the morning service, the pupils are free to leave the walls of the institution. The same is the case on Thursday afternoon. The director has found, however, bad results from these indiscriminate leaves of absence.

The discipline of the school is mild, the age and objects of the pupils being such that the use of coercive means is seldom required. The first step is admonition by a "repeater" or professor, the next a private admonition by the director. If these means prove ineffectual, dismission follows. The director has great influence, from his personal character, and from the fact that his recommendation can secure a good place* to the pupil immediately on leaving the school. The mode of life in the institution is very simple. The pupils are neatly but roughly dressed, and perform most of the services of police for themselves. The dormitories are very neat. The bedsteads are of wrought-iron, corded at the bottom. During the night the clothes are deposited in small boxes near the beds. The extra articles of clothing are in a common room. Cleanliness of dress and person are carefully enjoined. The fare is plain, but good, and the arrangements connected with the table unexceptionable. There is an infirmary attached to the school, which is, however, but rarely used.

The schools for practice do not require special description, as their organization will be sufficiently understood from what has already been said of primary schools, and they have not been long enough in operation to acquire the improved form which, I cannot doubt, they will receive under the present able director of the Normal School.

The Primary Normal School at Dijon, for the Department of Côte d'Or, in its general organization, is the same as that at Versailles. It differs, however, in one most important particular, which involves other differences of detail. All the instruction, except of religion and music, as well as the superintendence, is under the charge of the director and a single assistant, who, by the aid of the pupils, carry on the schools of practice, as well as the courses of the Normal School. This arrangement limits the amount of instruction, and interferes very materially with the arrangement of the studies. The school is conducted, however, with an excellent spirit. An idea of the plan will be obtained from the order of the day, which also contains an outline of the course of instruction.

From five to six A. M., the pupils say their prayers, wash, &c. From six to seven the higher division has a lesson in French grammar. The lower receives a lesson in geography or history alternately. From seven to eight, the higher division has a lesson in geography or history alternately; the lower division in arithmetic. From eight to half past eight, breakfast and recreation. From half past eight until eleven, a portion of the higher division is employed in the primary schools of practice, and the others are engaged in study. From eleven until one, writing and linear drawing for both divisions. From one until two, dinner and recreation. From two until half past four, as from half past eight to eleven. Recreation until five. From five to six, instruction in instrumental or vocal music for each division alternately. From six to seven, the higher division has a lesson in geometry, or its applications; the lower division in French grammar. From seven until a quarter before eight, supper and recreation. From this time until nine, the higher division has a lesson in physical science or natural history, mechanics, agriculture, and rural economy, or book-keeping; the lower di-

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* The best places, in point of emolument, are worth from fifteen to eighteen hundred francs (about $300 to $360).

vision in reading. The last quarter of an hour is occupied by both
in prayers, after which they retire. This order applies to all the da
week but Thursday, when, from eight to ten, the pupils receive m
religious instruction; from ten to eleven, instruction in the forms o
legal, and commercial writings; and from two to four, engaged in th
of part of the week's studies. On the afternoon of Thursday the s
practice are not in session.

On Sunday, after the duties following their rising, the pupils are
in studying and revising some of the lessons of the week. From
ten o'clock, in religious reading, aloud. At ten they go to servi
parish chapel, attended by the director and his assistant. Recei
and religious instruction, on their return, until dinner-time. Afte
attend the evening service, and then take a walk. In the evening,
for conversation on pedagogical subjects, and for prayers.

NORMAL SCHOOL*

FOR

TEACHERS OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS,

AT PARIS.

The "Normal School," intended to furnish professors for colleges, was established in 1794, by the same convention which created the polytechnic school. The organization proposed by the law was upon a scale entirely beyond the wants to be supplied; and, notwithstanding the exertions of its eminent professors, the school had but a temporary existence, and ill success, mainly from the unprepared state of the pupils who had entered it, and to whom the kind of instruction was entirely unadapted. There were thirteen courses of lectures, and among the professors were Lagrange, Laplace, Haüy, Monge, Berthollet, Volney, Bernardin St. Pierre, Sicard, and Laharpe. The school was suppressed by a decree of April, 1795, and its pupils dispersed. After the reorganization of the university, in 1806, the expediency of reviving the normal school appears to have been felt, and it was reorganized in 1808. The number of pupils provided for in the new plan was three hundred; but from 1810 to 1826 there were never more than fifty-eight actually in attendance. According to the plan of instruction, lectures were to be attended out of doors, and interrogations and study to take place within the school, under the charge of the elder pupils. The recitations of the pupils to each other were called conferences; a name which is still preserved, being applied to the lessons given by the teachers, who are called masters of conferences. The duration of the course of instruction was limited at first to two years, but subsequently extended to three. The school was a second time suppressed, in 1822; and in 1826 an institution, termed a "preparatory school," was substituted for it, which in its turn was abolished, and the old normal school revived by a decree of the lieutenant-general of the kingdom, on the 6th of August, 1830. A report was made by M. Cousin, Secretary of the Council of Public Instruction, in October, 1830, the recommendations of which were adopted substantially. New regulations for the course of study, the general arrangements and discipline, have been gradually prepared, and the school has commenced a career of usefulness which it bids fair to prosecute with increasing success.

The chief purpose of the normal school is to give its pupils ample opportunities of preparation for the competition for places of adjuncts in the colleges (cours d'agrégation), and its arrangements are all subordinate to this object. In this competition, however, the pupils of the school meet on an equal footing, merely, with all other candidates.

The officers, in 1837, were, the director, who did not reside at the school, nor take part in the instruction; the director of studies, the resident head of the establishment; eight masters of conferences for the section of letters; six masters of conferences, and one for the drawing department, for the section of sciences; two preparers (préparateurs); a sub-director, charged with a general superintendence of the pupils, and two assistants, called superintending masters. The masters of conferences have, in general, equivalent duties to the professors in the colleges. In 1837 there were eighty pupils in the school, of whom forty-nine were supported entirely by the funds allowed by the government, and eighteen had half their expenses defrayed.

The normal school at present occupies a part of the buildings belonging

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* From Bache's Education in Europe.

to the Royal College of Louis-le-Grand, and the college furnishes
and clothing of the pupils by agreement with the school. This co
has advantages, and among them, that of enabling the pupils to ha
practice in teaching; but they are more than counterbalanced by c
tages, and the friends of the school are earnest in their endeavors to
a separate domicile for it. The accommodations for lodging, study
tion, and exercise, as far as the building and its site are concerned
tainly of a most limited kind.

Admission.—The number of pupils who may be admitted is de
every year by the probable number required to fill the vacancies in
ary instruction. The admissions are made by competition, and
most successful competitors a limited number of bursaries (bou
established, divisible into half bursaries, which are distributed to th
require assistance. The candidates enter their names at the acade
est to their residence, between the fifteenth of June and of July, e
Each candidate deposits the following certificates, viz., of the date
showing that he is over seventeen and under twenty-three years o
having been vaccinated; of moral conduct; of having completed,
about to complete, his studies, including philosophy, and, if he i
become a teacher of science, a course of special mathematics and
ics; a declaration from his parent or guardian, if the candidate is
that he will devote himself for ten years, from the period of adm
public instruction. These lists are forwarded by the rectors of th
academies, with their remarks, to the council of public instructi
returns, before the first of August, a list of those persons who m
amined for admission. This examination is made in the several a
with a view to select the most prominent candidates, whose cases
ultimately decided by competition at the school in Paris. It co
compositions upon subjects which are the same for all the academi
interrogations and oral explanations. For the candidates, as future
ors in letters, the written exercises are a dissertation, in French,
points of philosophy, an essay in Latin, an essay in French, a L
Greek version, and Latin verses. The oral examinations turn
classical authors read in college, and upon the elements of ph
rhetoric, and history. The candidates in science have the same w
ercises in philosophy and in Latin versions, and in addition, must
or more questions in mathematics and physics. The oral examina
upon subjects of mathematics, physics, and philosophy, taught in th
ophy class of the colleges. All the written exercises and notes of
examinations are forwarded to the minister of public instruction,
mitted severally to a committee of letters and a committee of scien
from among the masters of the normal school, the director being
of each committee. These committees decide whether the candid
fit to be allowed to present themselves for examination at the sc
those who are deemed worthy, receive a notice to report themselv
before the fifteenth of October. Previous to this competition the c
are required to present their diploma of bachelor of letters or of
The masters of the normal school are divided into two committee
letters and the other of science, for conducting these examination
are oral, and the result of which determines the admission or rej
the candidate. On admission, the pupil makes an engagement t
himself to public instruction for ten years.

Instruction.—The present arrangement of the courses of instruc
only be regarded as provisional, improvements being gradually in
as observation shows their necessity. The principle declared by th
or, M. Cousin, to be that of the school in this respect, is worthy of
mendation. "When," says M. Cousin, in his Report of 1835–6,*

*** Ecole Normale. Règlements, programmes, et rapports. Paris, 1837.**

ence shows the necessity or utility of a measure which the fundamental regulations of the school have not provided for, it is by no means proposed at once to the royal council for adoption as an article of the regulations; authority is asked to put it to the test of practice, and it is only when found repeatedly successful that it is deemed prudent to convert it into a regulation." A close observation of the merits and defects of the system is thus made to pave the way for judicious changes.

The full course of the school, at present, occupies three years. The pupils are divided into two sections, that of letters and of science, which pursue separate courses. In the section of letters, the first year is devoted to a revision, and the second to an extension, of the higher courses of the colleges, and the third is especially employed in fitting the pupils to become professors. In fulfilling this object, however, no instruction in the science or art of teaching is given in the establishment, nor is it obligatory upon the pupils to teach, so that, as far as systematic practice goes, they derive no direct benefit from the school; it is a privilege, however, which many enjoy, to be called to give lessons in some of the royal colleges, particularly in that with which the school is now connected by its locality. When the pupil intends to devote himself to teaching in the grammar classes of the colleges, or is found not to have the requisite ability for taking a high rank in the body of instructors, he passes at once from the first year's course to the third, and competes, accordingly, in the examination of adjuncts (agreges). The consequences of the low esteem in which the grammar studies are held have been much deplored by the present director of the school,* and a reform in regard to them has been attempted, with partial success.

The courses are conducted by teachers called masters of conferences, who seldom lecture, but question the pupils upon the lessons which have been appointed for them to learn, give explanations, and are present while they interrogate each other, as a kind of practice in the art of teaching. In some cases, the students themselves act as masters of conferences.

The course of letters of the *first year* comprised, in 1836–7,†

1. Greek language and literature, three lessons per week. 2. Latin and French literature, three lessons. 3. Ancient history and antiquities, three lessons. 4. A course of philosophy higher than that of the colleges, three lessons. 5. General physics, one lesson. Chemistry, one lesson, the courses being introduced chiefly to keep up the knowledge of these subjects. 6. German and English language, each one lesson.

The conferences, or lessons on general physics, chemistry, and the modern languages, are by pupils who give instruction and explanations to their comrades.

At the end of the first year there are examinations, according to the result of which the student passes to the courses of the second year, or, in the case before stated, to those of the third year, or leaves the school. These examinations are conducted by inspectors-general of the university, named for the purpose by the minister. Pupils who have passed, may present themselves at the university as candidates for the degree of licentiate of letters.

The *second year's* course of letters does not necessarily include any scientific studies.

The courses of language and philosophy go into the history of these subjects. They consist of—1. Lectures on the history of Greek literature, three lessons per week. 2. On the history of Roman literature, two lessons. 3. On the history of French literature, one lesson. 4. English language, one lesson. 5. On the history of philosophy, two lessons. 6. Continuation of the historical course, two lessons. The recitations are accompanied by suitable written exercises.

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* Rapport sur les travaux de l'école normale pendant l'année, 1835–6. Par M. Cousin.

† The distribution of subjects is taken from a manuscript kindly furnished to me by the director of studies, M. Viguier; it does not agree precisely with the plan marked out in the regulations.

At the end of the year the pupils are examined. Those who ha already obtained the degree of licentiate of letters are now require so, or to leave the school.

The examinations for this degree consist of compositions in French an prose, on different days. Latin verses and Greek themes. Explanations of passages from the second book of Herodotus, the speech of Pericles in Thuc the Gorgias of Plato, the speech of Demosthenes against Leptines, the cho Œdipus at Colonos, the Hecuba of Euripides, the combat of Hercules and in Theocritus, the Hymns of Synesius, Cicero de Oratore and de legibus, t many of Tacitus, the Treatise of Seneca de beneficiis, the last two books c tilian's Rhetoric, the fifth book of Lucretius de natura rerum, the first Horace's Epistles, the second book of Horace's Odes, the Troas of Seneca.

These books are liable to be changed, from time to time, on notic given. The candidate is expected to answer the questions on phil literature, history, and philology, to which the reading of the auth give rise.

In the *third year* of letters, the courses are special, the divisions sponding with the courses of the royal colleges, and consisting of g humanities, and rhetoric, history, and philosophy. Each pupil ta place in one or other of these divisions, and is not required to fol courses of the others.

The lectures and recitations constituting the entire course of letters of t year were, during the second half year of 1836-7—1. Latin language and g three lessons. 2. Greek language, two lectures and one lesson. 3. Lati ture, two lectures and one lesson. 4. Greek literature, two lectures and on 5. Latin eloquence, two lectures. 6. Latin poetry, two lectures. 7. Frenc ture, one lesson. 8. History of the philosophy of the ancients, two 9. Ancient geography, two lectures. 10. Philosophy, one lesson. The alluded to are those attended by the pupils at the Sorbonne.

The following were the courses of the different years in the se science during the same term, the lectures being those of the fa sciences of the university.

First year. 1. Astronomy, two lessons per week. 2. Descriptive Geom lessons. 3. Chemistry, two lectures, one lesson, and four hours of mani 4. Botany, one lesson. 5. Philosophy, two lessons. 6. German langu lesson. 7. Drawing, one lesson, during the week, and one on Sunday.

Second year. 1. Physics, two lectures, two lessons, and one hour of m tion. 2. Chemistry, two lectures. 3. Botany, one lesson. 4. Vegetable gy, two lectures. 5. Calculus of probabilities, two lectures. 6. Differe integral calculus, two lectures and two lessons. 7. Drawing, one lesson d week, and one on Sunday.

Third year. 1. Mechanics, four lectures and two lessons. 2. Chemical two lectures and one hour of manipulation. 3. Chemistry, one lecture. 4. history, two lessons. 5. Geology, one lesson. 6. Botany, one lesson. ing, one lesson. On Sunday, the pupils make botanical and geological e into the environs.

The pupils undergo similar examinations to those of the section o and before presenting themselves as candidates for the place of adju must have taken at least the degree of licentiate of sciences. T however, specially relieved from the necessity of matriculating courses at the university which they attend in the school, and whic wise would be necessary in order to obtain the degree of licentiate. are, for the mathematical sciences, the differential and integral calc mechanics; for the physical sciences, physics and chemistry; and natural sciences, geology, botany, &c. The examination for the d licentiate of mathematical science may be made at the end of the year, by pupils of this section of the normal school, and that for l of physical science at the close of the third year.

The programmes of the several lessons* in both sections are prepared by the masters, and submitted to the council of public instruction every year before the beginning of the course.

Besides these lectures and recitations, the pupils are required to attend such other lectures at the faculty of letters or of sciences of the university, or any other public institution, as may be designated to them. At the termination of the third year's course, in the month of July, they are examined in the school, and present themselves as competitors for the places of adjuncts, according to the special studies which they have pursued.

The courses of the school are arranged in reference to the competition for these places, an account of the examinations for which has already been given in the general description of secondary instruction in France. In this competition they are brought in contact with the best talent which has chosen a different road to preferment from that offered by the normal school. Success in this trial is, of course, not always a fair criterion of the state of the school, but certainly offers, on the average, an idea of the merits of its different departments, and is so used in directing their improvement. It may be of interest, therefore, to give the results of one of these competitions, namely, that for 1836. The judges of the competition for the places of adjuncts in philosophy report ten candidates for the six places; of these, five of the successful ones were from the normal school, but the first was from another institution. For six vacancies in the higher classes of letters there were thirty candidates examined, and of these, two of the successful ones, including the first upon the list, were pupils of the school. For adjuncts in the sciences there were eight places and nineteen candidates, the school furnishing six of the successful competitors, and among them the first on the list. In history and geography there were eight candidates for five places; the institutions from which they came are, however, not stated. In grammar, there were forty-one candidates for eight places; of the successful competitors the school sent five, and among them the first on the list.

The keen nature of this competition, while it excites the pupils of the school to great exertion, produces a most deleterious effect upon the health of the more feeble. Indeed, their general appearance, when compared with those of other young men of the same age, is far from favorable. It is part of a system which is considered adapted to the national character, but which is certainly by no means a necessity for men in general, since the teachers of the German gymnasia are prepared without its severe pressure.

The collections subsidiary to the instruction are—1st. A library of works relating to education and to the courses of study, which is open for two hours every day, and from which the students may receive books. This library is under the charge of the sub-director of studies. The students are, besides, furnished with the books which they use in their classes at the expense of the school, and which, unless injured, are returned by them after use. 2d. A small collection of physical apparatus. 3d. A collection of chemical apparatus connected with a laboratory, for practice in manipulation. The courses of manipulation are not, however, carried out to their due extent, and the study-rooms are common to many individuals. The pupils are divided into two sections for study, each of which is in charge of one of the superintending masters.

Discipline.—Though there are minute regulations for discipline, the age of the pupils and the character of their pursuits and expectations render the exercise of severity but little necessary. At the time of my visit to the school, in 1837, the youngest pupil was seventeen years of age, and there were but four of between eighteen and nineteen connected with it.

Much difference of opinion exists as to whether the frequent permissions to individuals to leave the premises should not be replaced by excursions made by the whole of the pupils, under the supervision of an officer. At

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* A series of programmes is given in full in M. Cousin's work, before referred to.

present, Sunday is a day of general leave of absence, and on Thursda
noon individual permissions are freely granted by the director of stu

This institution occupies the same rank with those attached to s
the Prussian universities, and intended to prepare masters for the gy
It has an advantage over them in the spirit produced by the greater n
of its pupils, and by the closer connection with the school, which
from their studying and residing within its walls. It is, in turn, inf
the seminaries for secondary teachers at Berlin, in the absence of a
ments for practical teaching, and in even a more important respect,
the want of that religious motive of action which forms the chara
of the Prussian system. The deficiencies of this great school, in re
both religious and practical education, struck me, I must confess, ve
bly.*

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* In the general tenor of the foregoing remarks, I have the sanction of M. Cousin, in
ace to his account of the Normal School, already referred to.

POLYTECHNIC SCHOOL

OF

FRANCE.

The Polytechnic School of France was established by a decree of the National Convention, dated March 11, 1794, through the influence of Monge, Carnot, Fourcroy, and others, under the name of the Central School of Public Works—which name was changed to its present designation in 1795. To prepare a suitable choir of teachers, a certain number of pupils of the right character were trained under such professors as Lagrange, Laplace, Hassenfratz, and Berthollet.

The original object of the school, a diffusion of mathematical, physical, and chemical science, and the graphic arts, has been constantly maintained under the successive changes in the government of France; and although the pupils are not obliged to enter any branch of the government service; in point of fact, most of the graduates become engineers, military, naval or civil, or are promoted to the direction of public works. Since 1800, the school has furnished, on an average, one hundred thoroughly educated graduates for the public service, annually.

The general charge of the institution belongs to the war department, and the immediate control is vested in a military commandant, assisted by a vice-commandant, both of whom must have been pupils of the school with an able choir of subordinate officers, professors, and tutors. The following account of the school is abridged from President Bache's Report:

> The school is open to all candidates over sixteen years of age, from any part of France, who give satisfactory evidence of talents and acquirements.
>
> Each applicant registers his name at the prefecture of the department in which he resides, and is examined for admission in the district to which he belongs, or where he is under instruction. With this registry is deposited the certificate of the date and circumstances of birth, a certificate of vaccination or of having had the small-pox, and of general health, and an obligation on the part of the parent or guardian to pay the sum of one thousand francs (about two hundred dollars) yearly to the school, in case of admission.
>
> The subjects upon which a candidate is examined are—1. Arithmetic, in all its branches. 2. Elementary geometry. 3. Algebra. 4. Plane trigonometry. 5. Statics treated synthetically. 6. Elements of analytical geometry. 7. The use of the logarithmic tables. 8. Latin, as far as it is taught in the rhetoric class of the colleges, and French composition. 9. Drawing, with the crayon and with instruments. If the candidate possesses, in addition, a knowledge of physics, chemistry, German, and of India-ink drawing, they are taken into the account.
>
> There are four examiners appointed annually by the minister of war, on the nomination of the council of instruction of the school. These divide between them the different districts in which the examinations are to be held, and repair, at a stated time, between the first of August and tenth of October, to the place appointed. The performance of the candidates is registered according to a scale of marks, as nearly uniform as the judgment of different individuals allows; these registers being compared, the candidates are admitted in the order of merit, thus

determined, as far as the number of vacancies permits. The successful ca are informed of the result of their examination, and join the school earl vember. They are received by a board (jury) of examiners, who subject a second examination, intended to verify the first, and to the inspection c geon. This board consists of the two commandants, the director of stu two permanent examiners attached to the school, and the four exami admission.

There are twenty-four gratuitous places for pupils whose families are i circumstances; of these, twelve are at the disposal of the minister of war, the minister of commerce, and four of the minister of marine. These may be halved. No pupil who is lower than two-thirds from the head o in the order of merit at admission, is eligible to a bursary or half bursary.

Besides the students thus regularly entering the school, a certain nu youths are permitted to attend the lectures, (auditeurs libres.) The ma these are foreigners.

The highest executive authority in matters of instruction, is the di studies. This office was created in 1804, previous to which time the c instruction had discharged its duties. The director of studies overseers t of instruction, being immediately responsible to the commandant of th He is appointed by the king, on the joint nomination of the council of in of the school and of the academy of sciences, and is a member of all bo vened in relation to its affairs. A council, termed the council of in (*conseil d' instruction*,) and composed of the two commandants, the di studies, the professors of the school, one master, appointed annually by t ers from among their number, and the librarian, who acts as secretary, m a month for the discussion of business relating to instruction. When ch required in the courses or in the examinations, they are discussed in th and referred to a second, which may be considered as the chief legislative regard to the subjects composing the instruction.

This council, termed the council of improvement, (*conseil de perfection* consists of the two commandants, the director of studies, the five examine school, one examiner for admission, three members of the academy of scien professors in the school, and a member from each of the branches of t service into which the graduates enter.

The officers directly concerned in instruction are, the professors and peaters (*répétiteurs*.) The professors and masters are appointed by the of war on the joint nomination of the council of instruction and of the academy of the institute in which the subject of instruction is classed. fessors communicate instruction by lecture and by general interrogatio pupils. The repeaters conduct the special interrogations, and give aid to t while engaged in study. The title of "repeater" is, no doubt, derived original duty of these teachers having been to go over the lessons of the p The repeaters do the more laborious work of instruction, and since their tion for the pupil teachers, who were employed in the early period of the of the school, have been considered most important officers. Some of distinguished professors have risen from the rank of repeaters.

There are two divisions of the pupils for instruction, corresponding t years' duration of the courses. No pupil is allowed to remain in one of visions more than two years, nor in the school more than three. To pro the first division to the second, or to graduate, an examination must upon the studies of the year then just elapsed. Until 1798, these exa were conducted by the professors, but now there are examiners, who are nected with the school. Two of these are permanent, and appointed by ister of war on the joint nomination of the council of instruction and of the of sciences, and three are appointed annually on the recommendation of th The courses of the first year are—analysis, geometry, mechanics, d geometry, application of analysis to geometry, physics, chemistry, French tion, topographical drawing, drawing of the human figures, landscape and India-ink drawing. Those of the second year are—a continuation of t sis, geometry, mechanics, physics, chemistry, and drawing of the first yea machines, geodesy and social arithmetic, architecture, and the German

Analysis.

First Year. Differential and integral calculus, to include the rectification and quadrature of plane curves, and curved surfaces, and the cubature of solids.

Second Year. Differential and integral calculus continued. Elements of the calculus of variations and of finite differences. Formulæ of interpolation, &c.

Mechanics.

First Year. Statics.—Composition and equilibrium of forces. Theory of parallel forces. Of the center of gravity. Attraction of a point by a homogeneous sphere. Dynamics.—General formation of motion. The pendulum. Projectiles. Problems in physical astronomy.

Second Year. Statics continued. Forces applied to an invariable system. Principle of virtual velocities. Application to simple mechanics. Dynamics. D'Alembert's principle. Collision. Moment of inertia, &c. Hydrostatics. Hydrodynamics.

Every lecture of analysis or mechanics is preceded or followed by interrogations by the professor. Problems are given out for solution. The repeaters interrogate the pupils three times per week. After the completion of the course, general interrogations take place, upon the whole subject, by the professors and repeaters.

Descriptive Geometry.

Problems relating to the right line and plane (twelve problems.) Tangent planes and normals to curved surfaces (four problems.) Intersections of surfaces (seven problems.) Miscellaneous problems (seven.)

Applications of Descriptive Geometry. Problems with a single plane of projection, and a scale of declivity. Linear perspective (three problems.) Shadows (three problems.) Stone cutting (seven problems.) Carpentry (four problems.)

India-ink drawing. Elements in four examples.

Analytical Geometry.

The right line and plane. Curved surfaces.

The professor may precede or follow his lecture by interrogations. During the course the class is examined by the repeaters, and at the close of the studies of Analytical Geometry there is a general review.

Machines, Astronomy, Geodesy, and Social Arithmetic.

Elements of Machines. Machines for transporting burthens and for pressure. For raising liquids. Moved by air, by water, by steam. Useful effect of machines.

Astronomy and Geodesy. Formulæ of spherical trigonometry. Measurement of space and time. Of the celestial bodies. Of the earth. Elements of physical geography and hydrography. Geodesy. Instruments. Figures of the earth. Projection of maps and charts.

Elements of the calculation of probabilities. Tables. Insurances. Life insurance, &c.

Interrogations by the professor accompany the lessons. Those by the repeater must be at least as frequent as those by the professor. At the close of the principal courses there is a general review, in the way of interrogation, by the professor and repeater.

Physics.

First Year. 1. General properties of bodies. Falling bodies. Principle of equilibrium of fluids. Specific gravities. 2. Heat. Radiation, conduction, &c. Vapors. Latent heat. 3. General constitution of the atmosphere. Hygrometry. 4. Molecular attraction. Capillary action. 5. Electricity. Laws of attraction, repulsion, distribution, &c. Atmospheric electricity. Modes of developing electricity.

Second Year. 6. Magnetism. Phenomena and laws of magnetism. Instruments. Reciprocal action of magnets and electrical currents. Electro-dynamics. Mutual actions of electrical currents. Thermo-electric phenomena. 7. Acoustics. Of the production, propogation, velocity, &c., of sound. Acoustic instruments. 8. Optics. Mathematical and physical optics. Optical instruments.

During the whole course the repeaters interrogate each division twice every week; they go through the study-rooms, and give any explanations which may be required by the pupils.

Chemistry.

First Year. General principles. Division of the course. Examination of the principal simple substances. Mixtures and binary compounds. Laws of definite proportions, &c. Hydracids. Oxacids and oxides. Bases. Neutral binary compounds. Salts. Principal metals.

Second Year. Reciprocal action of acids and oxides. Action of water upon salts. Laws of Berthollet discussed. General properties of the carbonates, and special study of some of the more important. Borates and silicates. Glass and pottery. Nitrates. Gunpowder. Phosphates, &c. Sulphates. Chlorates. Chromates and other classes of salts, with details as to the more important. Extraction of the metals from their ores, methods of refining, &c. Organic chemistry. Vegetable substances. Animal substances.

This course is accompanied by manipulations in the laboratory of the institution, in which the most useful preparations of the course are made by the pupils themselves. They are also taught the principles of analysis, both mineral and organic, practically.

Architecture.

Component parts of edifices. General principles. Materials. Foundations. Strength. Forms and proportions of the parts of buildings. Floors. Roofs, arches, &c. General principles of the compositions of parts of edifices. Illustrations of the different varieties of parts, as porticos, porches, vestibules, halls, &c. Composition of an edifice. Varieties of buildings—as colleges, hospitals, prisons, barracks, &c.

The pupils copy from the board the sketches of the professor, and draw them carefully when required At the close of the lectures there are four different subjects assigned, upon each of which there is a competition. The pupils are classified according to the result of these competions, and of the marks for their graphic exercises during the course. The best

designs are exhibited. Three India-ink drawings are made on architectural su
this course.

French Composition.

The course consists principally in the writing of essays and compositions b
which are subsequently criticised during the recitations.

German Language.

Elements of the language. Grammar reading. Themes and versions. Eve
followed by an examination of an hour and a-half in duration, by the professor
There are, besides, exercises of pronunciation and common conversation.

Topography.

Exercises in topographical drawing. Different mòdes of representing the gro
zontal curves, the projections of lines of greatest declivity, and by shading.
signs. Lettering. The exercises of the second division are preceded by lessons
fessor of geodesy, explanatory of the theory.

Drawing of the Human Figure and Landscape Drawing.

In the first branch the pupils are divided into two classes, one of which copie
and the other draws from models. On entering the school the pupils are classifi
to the drawings which they made at the examination for admission. They are
into two sections, of as nearly equal strength as possible, and assigned, each one,
with whom they remain during their course. One of the drawing-masters
charged with the course of drawing from casts and from nature. At the begi
second year, the highest third of the pupils of each section of the former first d
the teacher of drawing in water colors, and remain for two months. They re
sections, and are replaced by the next division, each pupil occupying a third o
year in this kind of drawing. The merits of the drawings are judged every
After the first of May the ordinary drawing lessons are replaced by those in wat

Besides these regular studies, there are from twelve to fifteen lectures on anatom
iology, given towards the close of the second year, during hours not devoted t
branches, and which it is optional with the pupils to attend or not. Fencing,
dancing lessons, are also given.

During the interrogations by the professors and repeaters, notes are t
merit of the answers of the pupils, according to a uniform scale of mar
are communicated with the subjects of each lecture or recitation to the
studies, and placed upon record, as assisting in determining the merit o
The examiners mark according to the same scale. The pupils are cla
the examinations in the several departments, and in taking the avera
standing in general merit, a different weight is allowed to the differe
Mathematics counts most, and then the graphic exercises, descriptiv
and geodesy united, and conduct count the same—then physics and ch

The examinations at the end of the two years of study are divided
the first, on the courses of the first year, including analysis, part o
geometry, and mechanics; the second, on chemistry; the third, on p
fourth, on descriptive geometry and its applications, and part of analytica
The examination at the close of the second year is divided as follo
analysis, analytical geometry, mechanics, effects of machines and social
Second, chemistry. Third, physics. Fourth, geodesy, description o
and architecture. The examination on analysis and its applications, and
are conducted by the two permanent examiners. The pupils are exam
and without the presence of their comrades, and each examiner occupie
room. Where the branches admit of it, the examinations are viva vo
dent using the blackboard when required.

After the examinations are completed, the results are reported to a
with all the materials before them from the examiners and from the sc
whether the pupils may pass to the higher division, or are admissible in
lic service, according to the division to which they belong. This boar
consists of the two commandants, the director of studies, the two perm
three temporary examiners.

The arrangement of the time allotted to study, like the similar point
to instruction, is a matter of very minute regulation. The pupils stu
rooms, conveniently fitted up for the purpose, and where they receiv
entrance, places which they retain, in general, during the course. Th
tions or recitations take place in rooms adapted to that purpose, separa
larger lecture halls. These recitation-rooms are also open to the pupil
during recreation hours, and after supper; and in summer, whenever t
is bad, so as to prevent them from spending the time in the open air
certain stated periods before the examinations. The repeaters are pre

the periods devoted to the studies of their several departments, and, except in the cases of the graphic exercises where it is not allowed, are expected to give assistance to the pupils who ask for it.

The order of the day in the institution is arranged with a view to bring the lectures, recitations, and studies of particular branches together. Besides this, there are study-hours called free, in which the student may employ himself as he pleases, otherwise than in drawing of any kind (graphic exercises.)

The discipline of the school is thoroughly military, and the means of carrying it out in all its strictness are provided. The regulations are very minute, and fix, in detail, the punishment considered equivalent to each offense, as well for those against morals as transgressions of the regulations themselves. The punishments are—1. Private admonition by the commandant or vice-commandant. 2. Public reprimand before the corps of pupils. 3. Confinement to the walls of the institution, or stoppage of leave. 4. Confinement to the house. 5. Imprisonment within the walls. 6. Military imprisonment. 7. Dismission. The usual punishment for trivial offenses is the stoppage ("sortie,") one of which is equivalent to a deprivation of the general leave of absence for half a day. This may be awarded by an officer as low as an adjutant. It follows certain specified offenses, as overstaying a leave, when the number of stoppages is in proportion to the time of overstaying the leave, and is even assigned for a failure in recitation. Imprisonment within the walls can only be awarded by the commandant, vice-commandmant, or director of studies, and excludes the student from the recitation-room. Confinement in the military prison requires the order of the commandant, who reports the case at once to the minister of war. Dismission can not take place without the sanction of the minister. Cases of discipline, suppose to involve dismission or the loss of a bursary, are referred to a board called the council of discipline, and composed of the two commandants, the director of studies, two professors, two captain inspectors, the captain instructor, and one administrator.

For military exercises, and the general furtherance of discipline, the pupils form a battalion, divided into four companies, each division of the school forming two companies. From each company eight petty officers, called sergeants, are taken according to the order of the merit-roll of the division, making thirty-two in the whole battalion. These sergeants are distinguished by appropriate military badges. The sergeants have charge of the other pupils in the study-rooms, halls, recitation-rooms, refectory, laboratories, and lecture-rooms, and two of them in turn are joined with a higher officer, an adjutant, in the inspection of the food. They have charge in general of the details of police. The second sergeants are intrusted with the collection of money due by their comrades for letters and other authorized expenses. These officers are appointed once a year.

The administration of the fiscal affairs of the school is committed to a board consisting of the commandant and vice-commandant, the director of studies, two professors, designated by the council of instruction, two inspectors of studies in turn, according to rank, the administrator or steward as reportor (rapporteur,) the treasurer as secretary. The last two named agents are consulting members only. This board meets twice every month. It prepares the estimates for the expenses of the school, which are submitted to the minister of war. The form of these and, indeed, of all the accounts, is laid down minutely in regulations.

The payment made by parents for the maintenance of the pupils does not go into the treasury of the institution, but into the general central treasury of the country. The school furnishes the pupil, for a stipulated sum, with his board, lodging, clothing, and petty expenses. For repairs of clothing and petty expenses, a special sum is set aside, of which the student receives an account. Parts of the supply of clothing, &c., at entrance, may be furnished by the parents, but the rest is supplied by the school at the parents' expense.

The steward (administrateur) is the executive officer of the domestic economy of the school—prepares all matters of business for the consideration of the council of administration, and the estimates of every kind, regular and contingent; presents the plans and estimates of the architect of the school for repairs or new buildings, and superintends their execution when authorized; makes contracts and receives the articles contracted for; has charge of the issue of all articles, of the storehouses, and of the servants; superintends the infirmary; he nominates the subordinate persons employed in his department, and is responsible directly to the council, in virtue of the authority of which he is supposed to act.

The board of examination decide formally upon the claims of the pu
second year to be graduated, and arrange the rolls in the order of m
pupils then, in turn, choose the department of the public service which
to enter, and in case there is no vacancy in this department, are still
priority of choice in other branches over those below them.

On entering these several services, the graduates pass to the schools
tion, or special schools, intended to give the technical preparation ne
notice of those which prepare for civil pursuits is here given.

There are special schools of practice for the land artillery and enginee
the staff or topographical engineers. The officers who have charge of
facture of powder are sent to the different government establishments f
The graduates intended for the naval artillery go to the school of pract
land artillery at Metz; those for the naval engineers, to a special school a
The hydrographical engineers enter at once upon the actual dischar
duties in subordinate situations. The courses in these schools, or the
ship to the duties of the service, vary from two to three years, accor
branch. The civil services have the schools of practice for the corps o
bridges, and of mines, and for the manufacture of tobacco.

The corps of civil engineers, entitled corps of roads and bridges (cor
et chaussées,) have in charge all the works of this class, for the constr
repair of which the government is responsible. Their special school a
founded as early as 1747, and embraced some of the acquisitions now r
polytechnic school. Its organization, however, appears to have been
imperfect, the pupils being admitted without examination, and receiv
their instruction out of the school. At present, the regular pupils a
from the polytechnic school, and go through a course of three years. T
taught consist of applied mechanics, civil architecture, constructions,
geology, administrative jurisprudence, drawing, and the English, G
Italian languages. There are examinations at the close of each year.
occupy the period from the 20th of November to the 1st of May. Durin
vening time, from May to November, the students of the second and thi
sent into the field for practice, under the departmental engineers. Th
ceive pay, as aspirants from the government while at the school, and ma
rank of engineer of the second class in three years from the period of

The corps of mines is charged with the execution of all laws relatin
miners, quarries, and furnaces, and with the promotion, by advice or
ertion, of the branches of the arts connected with mining. They supe
working of mines, and are responsible for the safety of the workmen, t
servation of the soil, and the economy of the work. They also have
superintendence of the execution of the laws relating to the safety of
engine. They have two schools of practice, one at Paris, called th
mines, the other at St. Etienne, called the school of miners. The
struction in both these schools are confided to members of the corp
Paris is considered to rank among the first of the special schools of Fr

The regular pupils of the school of mines are divided into two classe
to the pay received from the government. The pupils from the polyte
enter the second of these classes. They remain at the school not less t
more than four years. During the winter there are courses of mineralo
the working, refining, and assaying of metals, the working of mines, d
the English and German languages; and at the close, the pupils are e

The students of the first year are employed during the summer
manipulation in the laboratories of the school, which are admirably p
this purpose, in making geological excursions in the neighborhood of P
the use of surveying instruments. During the similar periods of th
years, the students are sent into the departments, and sometimes abro
particular examinations in relation to their profession, and on their re
pected to present a memoir descriptive of their investigations.

The students of the first, or highest class, are present at the sittings
eral council of mines, to familiarize them with the business of the co
their final examination they are classed in the order of merit, and recei
promotion accordingly.

SCHOOL OF ARTS AND MANUFACTURES

AT

PARIS.

The school of Arts and Manufactures started with the principle, that, however numerous might be the different theoretical courses of instruction which each student might require, in order to qualify him for a special profession or trade, still such theory should be in intimate connection with, and be made subservient to, industrial science. Thus the chemist who quitted the college should not only be well versed in theory and a good operator in the laboratory, but he should also be a mechanic, a geologist, and a draughtsman—so that, in case of an emergency, he would not only know how to select the best materials, but to superintend the construction of works which he might eventually have to direct. It was assumed that by adopting this plan of a comprehensive scientific, and practical training, young men would acquire an aptness, a general intelligence, and a taste for seeking knowledge after quitting the college which would fit them for various useful careers.

None of the existing establishments in France afforded such advantages. At the colleges, students were free to follow, with more or less assiduity, any particular course of lectures, or merely that portion most attractive to them. They abandoned their studies without responsibility, and their application was not enforced by any check.

The School of Arts and Manufactures was established in order to provide a remedy for these defects. Although a private establishment, it was placed first under the surveillance of the Minister of Public Instruction, and eventually, in 1838, under the Minister of Commerce, who, in his budget for that year, asked for certain sums to defray the expense ot sending up students to it. A commission of the Chamber of Deputies recommended the grant for the following reasons:

"That this college was created in 1829, under the most eminent and experienced professors, for the purpose of forming engineers, directors of manufactories, and workshops of all descriptions.

"This private establishment, which by its excellence and utility competes with our best public establishments, has created and put into practice a complete system of industrial education.

"It is at the same time a sequel to our Polytechnic School, and an adjunct to our schools for special arts or trades. This college meets the conditions which the age requires, and it has completely succeeded. It has been proved both by the support given to it by our great manufactures, and by the fact that all the young men educated there immediately find the most lucrative employment."

The money was granted by the Minister in 1838, and in 18
pears that nineteen of the Counseils Généraux in different dep
in France voted funds to send up to this college a certain nu
young men from their towns; and the Minister had, it seems,
for forty, whose previous instruction and good conduct, and the
of their families, has entitled them to the favor of the State.

The STUDENTS of the establishment are of three classes—viz., thos
brought up by the State; those for whom funds have been voted by th
General of departments; and those received at the expense of their fa

In order TO OBTAIN ADMISSION, Government and departmental can
examined at Paris, before a jury named by the Minister of Commer
purpose each year. The candidates must have been registered and rec
by the department whence they come; and they must prove that they a
the ages of eighteen and twenty-one. They undergo two examinations
the other written; and they must solve with ease certain problems in
mathematics and geometry. They must write and describe their pro
theories well; draw by rule and compass; sketch and color. Wit
qualifications it is impossible to be admitted as a Government studen
juries are instructed to select those who shew most literary attainment
"appear to have that deception of intelligence which promises an apti
dustrial science, rather than mathematical acquirements." A great pr
given to those who have obtained the necessary qualification in a hi
and whose means are limited, and the administration is not to aid t
families are in a position to defray the expenses of their education. A
may participate in an "Encouragement Fund" for the first year, but
only those who shew the greatest amount of merit; and an augmentat
accorded to those who are remarkable for still higher qualities. PR
DENTS are admitted at any age above sixteen. They, too, submit to bo
written examinations. They must execute certain problems, and w
and correctly the theories as set forth in the programme. Foreigner
French students are admitted, provided they can write and read the
In Paris, these examinations are made by a board named yearly by the
Studies, in the departments by public professors of mathematics, and
countries by the university professors; and all applicants must produce
timonials as to their morality.

The AUTHORITY OF THE SCHOOL is vested in a director and a Council
consisting of nine professors. The director lives in the college, and
with its administration and correspondence, but he can not appoint
these are selected for their practical as well as theoretical experience.
cil admit or reject candidates after reading the statement of their ex
and they report on the progress of each student—as to his aptitude a
ties, and whether he is eligible to be transferred to a superior division,
his friends shall be requested to remove him. The students bind them
solemn declaration to take no part in any conspiracy to oppose the e
the decisions of their superiors, and they promise to enter into no coali
posing on the junor or senior branches of the college. No students
within the college, and they are not permitted to wear any des
uniform.

The COURSE OF INSTRUCTION is limited to three years, during which
obligatory. It includes lectures, daily examinations, drawing and gra
cises, chemical manipulations, working in stone and wood, physics and
the construction of buildings and other works, and general annual ex
The students are, in addition, expected to make notes and reports, and
workshops and manufactories. They are boarded and lodged at
houses in the immediate vicinity, at their own expense. Each yea
general examinations in every branch of science and art. In the mi
second year the studies are subdivided—one course is general, the oth
cial relation to the ultimate destination of the scholar.

The specialities are four in number:—1. Mechanicians. 2. Cons
architects, engineers. 3. Mining and metallurgy. 4. Chemistry, ap

its branches, including agriculture. After that period, the whole energies of the student are devoted to those branches of science on which the profession he is about to adopt depends.

With respect to DIPLOMAS and CERTIFICATES, the students of the third year are admitted to competition for diplomas, a programme of examination being made out for each speciality. The competitors are allowed thirty-five days within the college to make out their designs and compose their memoir, and then they are examined by five professors in public and before the students of two years. After the examination, the professors in council grant diplomas to those who have excelled and who have passed with the greatest honors, and "certificates of capacity" to those who have given less general proof of the highest talent. At each examination those who do not advance sufficiently, or are idle, are recommended to retire. All the examinations are kept for reference in the archives of the college.

The FEES FOR EACH STUDENT, including several extras, are altogether 870 francs ($174) per annum. That the institution is flourishing, is proved by its being mainly self-supporting; and that the country benefits by it, the long array of eminent graduates who might be named together with a statement of their present employments, would most satisfactorily illustrate.

The following is the programme of instruction somewhat more in detail:

FIRST YEAR.

Descriptive Geometry. Theory and application to perspective, drawing, and shading; stone-cutting—details; carpentry—details.

Analytical Geometry and Mechanics generally. Theory of motion and equilibrium of forces; velocity, acceleration, force, mass; general principles of motion, gravity, power, effect; statics of solid bodies.

Construction of Machines.

Transformation and Modification of Motion.

Physics generally. Laws of gravity, balances, pendulum, and its application; hydrostatics, hydrodynamics, heat, magnetism, electricity, electrodynamics and electro-magnetism, molecular action, acoustics, light, optics.

For the first year the students are made to manipulate, in determining the density of solids, liquids, and gasses, the construction and use of barometers, thermometers, and hygrometers; determination of refractive powers, photometers; power of rotation in liquids, saccharometers.

Chemistry generally. Minerals, and the study of all objects not metallic; the atmosphere, gases. Metallic; general methods for extraction of metallic oxides; general properties of sulphurets, chlorides, &c.; general properties of the salts; metals useful either alone or in their combination for the arts.

Organic chemistry. Methods of analysis; principal organic products; their uses in the arts; acids, and their applications.

One day in the week in the laboratory, to practice the experiments they have seen in the lecture-room.

Medicine and Natural History applied to Industry.

Hygeian Science and Physiology, as far as Public Health is concerned:

First Part. Food, clothing; influence of heat and cold; dampness, and a dry atmosphere; sun and winds; the health in different professions; sanitary regulations and legislation.

Second Part.—Natural History. The animal creation in all that relates to industry, the arts and agriculture; power, produce, and nutriment. The vegetable creation; substances employed in the arts; wood, textiles, cereals, wines, tanning, dyes.

Drawing and Design in its various Branches. During the vacation, plans and elevations of buildings and works are executed, which must be presented at the commencement of the term.

SECOND YEAR.

The same as the first year, besides modeling in plaster for stone-cutting, &c.

Industrial Physics. Properties and construction of furnaces of all kinds for different descriptions of fuel, transmission of heat, sublimation, distillation, evaporisation, heating air and liquids, refrigeration, lightning, ventilation, and sanitary arrangements of towns; constructions of all kinds in model bricks and plaster of Paris.

During the recess the students visit works and manufactories, and are obliged to present detailed reports on them.

The students of the third year complete five different projects, with drawings, calculation and estimates on which there are conferences, one on each speciality every month.

Second and Third Year. Applied mechanics in great detail, applied hydrodynamics, construction and setting up of machines, analytical chemistry in different branches for different professions, industrial chemistry both mineral and organic, agricultural chemistry.

Public Works. Roads, bridges in stone, wood, iron, and suspension; natural inland navigation, artificial inland navigation.

Architecture.

Geology and Mineralogy.

Mining, Working, and Ventilation Metallurgy and fabrication in iron, steel, zinc, and copper; furnaces and founderies for all metals.

Technology. Manufacture of cordage; stone and wood sawing; textile manufactures in cotton, wool, flax, silk; cotton spinning; expression of oils; grinding, felting, ceramic and pottery.

Special Courses for the Third Year. Steam-engines of all descriptions; railways a ferent systems for locomotion; the students visiting the most important works with professors.

The students are examined daily upon the subjects of their lectures, by the fessors and repeaters (Répétiteurs.) The utility of this latter class of teach well established in France, and they are found in every institution in which turing is practiced to a great extent as a means of instruction; they preven burthen of teaching from falling upon professors, whose duty it is to be engag advancing, as well as in propagating science, and who would be prevented following one or other of these honorable and useful careers, by having the of teaching superadded to that of lecturing. So well is the necessity of reli the professor understood, that in all courses requiring preparation, special pe are appointed, called preparers, who take off this burthen also from the prof The result is, that many men of high eminence are thus enabled to diffuse knowledge among students by lecturing, and are willing to do so, though have other and more profitable employments, to which they would exclu confine themselves, if this were connected with teaching by interrogation an task of preparing experimental illustrations. The pupil is thus greatly the g and has at the same time the special examination upon the lecturers which necessary to complete the instruction, and to which a repeater is entirely co tent. Young men of talent seek the situations of repeaters as the best meth showing their particular qualifications, and the most certain road to a prof ship. For each recitation the pupil receives a mark, and the roll of the class these marks being preserved, its indications are combined with the results o examination, to decide upon the fitness of a pupil when he comes forward diploma.

The graphic exercises consist in the drawing of ornamental work, in Indi drawing, in drawing with the steel pen and instruments, and in sketching diagrams of the lectures to a scale. Great importance is attached to this pa the course, and much time spent in it. The rooms for these exercises are veniently arranged, and the pupils are superintended during them by a prof or a repeater, and visited occasionally by the director of studies or his dep The drawing-tables are so arranged that the pupils stand while at work, whi their age is very desirable.

The arrangements for chemical manipulation by the students are very comp they have access not only to the laboratories of the two professors, but to o which are devoted to special branches. During the first year every stude employed in laboratory duty once a week, and has also the opportunity of forming some of the principal physical experiments. They are superinte while thus occupied, by repeaters. During the first half year of the second c the students are called, in turn, to general duty in the laboratory; and durin second half of the same year, and the whole of the third, the two sections follow the courses of chemistry applied to the arts and metallurgy, are empl in manipulations connected with them. There is an officer for their superint ence, called the director (chef) of the chemical exercises, who is subordina the professor of chemical analysis. The opportunities thus afforded of acqu a general practice under the guidance of the distinguished professors of this s are invaluable, and form one of the most important features of the establishm

The materials for constructing models of some of the more useful works, apparatus relating to the arts, are furnished to the pupils, and used under th rection of their instructors.

The annual number of students entering varies from 130 to 160. They eight hours and a half in the college, and four at their residences. Four ins tors are constantly occupied in surveying, independently of those superinten the graphic department.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

IN

FRANCE.

The great industrial interest of agriculture is wisely recognized and cared for by the government of France in the following manner:

1. There is not simply a bureau with a clerk, but a department with a secretary or minister, to collect and disseminate information as to the condition and improvement of agriculture, and the agricultural population, and to administer all laws which may be passed on the subject. An annual report, statistical and suggestive, is made by the minister.
2. Agricultural inspectors are employed; some to visit foreign countries, gather information, and import plants and seeds, and improved stock, to be disposed of at public sales; and others to visit particular districts of the country, and communicate information and advice, as they may see that they are needed.
3. Encouragement is given to agricultural societies and shows. In 1850, there were over one million of members enrolled in the various central, departmental and local societies, for the promotion of horticulture and agriculture. Premiums are offered for improvement in every branch of agricultural industry.
4. In the Conservatory of Arts and Trades, provision is made for a collection of models and drawings of agricultural buildings and implements, and for courses of gratuitous lectures on the principles of chemistry and mechanics as applied to agriculture.
5. The government has organized an extensive system of agricultural and veterinary instruction, and makes liberal appropriation for its support.

The earliest effort in Europe to provide for special instruction in agriculture, was made by Abbe Rosier in France, who submitted to Turgot, minister of Finance, in 1775, a "Plan for a National School of Agriculture in the Park of Chambord," and again to the National Assembly in 1789. After his death, the plan was submitted to Bonaparte, but without success. In the mean time, Fellenberg opened an institution in Switzerland. The first experiment in France was made by M. de Domsbasle at Roville, in 1822, which, for want of sufficient capital, was abandoned in 1842. Its success was such as to lead to the establishment of the Royal Agronomic Institution at Grignon in 1827, the Institute of Coetbo in 1830, of the school at Grand Juan in 1833, and the model farm of Saulsaie in 1842. In 1847, there were twenty-five agricultural schools in operation, to several of which orphan asylums and penal colonies were attached. At the close of that year, the government introduced a measure for the better organization of agricultural instruction, which was voted by the National Assembly on of October, 1848, and the sum of 2,500,000 francs was appropria carry its provisions into execution.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION.

The law of 1848 provides for three degrees of professional instr in agriculture at the expense of the State. 1. A farm school i (86) department, and ultimately, for each (363) arrondisement. higher seminary, called a District or Regional School, embracin or more departments; and 3. A National Agronomic Institute, a normal school of agriculture.

MODEL FARM SCHOOL.

The farm school is a rural enterprise, conducted with abilit profit, in which the pupils perform all the labor, and receive a pr course of instruction in agriculture. The objects aimed at are: *f* furnish a good example of tillage to the farmers of the distric *second*, to form agriculturists capable of cultivating intelligently, upon their own property or that of others, as farmers, managers seers of cattle, &c.

The school is open to pupils who are at least sixteen years o have a good constitution, and have received an education in the p schools. Each school must have at least twenty-four pupils, be can receive aid from the government. The aim is to have pupils e on each farm to carry on all its operations in the field, nurseri gardens, without any other help, except that of the teachers.

The officers or teachers selected and paid by the government *director* with a salary of 2,400 francs; a *head workman* with a of 1000 francs; a *nursery gardener*, with a salary of 1000 fra *veterinary surgeon*, with a salary of 500 francs; besides these, i of the schools, there are special assistants, such as shepherds growers, &c., &c.

The practical course extends through three years. The first voted to simple manual labor; the second to the charge of animals the third to the oversight of various operations on the farm. The appropriated to study are devoted, 1st, to copying and writing o notes taken of the instructions of the different leaders: 2d, to rea manual of elementary agriculture; and 3d, to lessons given by the seer of accounts, on arithmetic, book-keeping, and surveying. ious instruction is given by the clergy in the neighborhood.

The director works the farm at his own risk, and must so cond as not only to give as good examples of tillage, but as profitable of crops, as other farms in its neighborhood, otherwise the patron the government is withdrawn.

Pupils are boarded and instructed without charge, and are allowed a small sum toward clothing. Prizes are also awarded fo conduct and proficiency.

Seventy-one Model Farm Schools were in operation in 1851, with over 1,500 students in attendance on a course of practical instruction extending through three years.

District, or Regional Schools of Agriculture.

France is divided into a number of agricultural districts, in each of which there is to be a District School of Theoretical and Practical Agriculture. They have three objects in view:

1. To form enlightened agriculturists, by teaching them the principles of agriculture.
2. To offer an example, or model, of practical agriculture of a high order, and constantly advancing.
3. To make experiments for improving the cultivation of the soil.

The instruction in these schools is of a much higher order than in the farm schools, and is adapted not to prepare laborers on the farm, so much as men to direct agricultural affairs. The farm connected with the school is expected to present an enlighted system of culture, and to adapt that culture to the wants and peculiarities of the district in which it is situated. The director, also, is no longer a farmer, or proprietor, laboring at his own risk, but an agent employed by the government, and accountable to them, and subject to their direction.

The instruction is both theoretical and practical, embracing the following six professorships:

One professor of rural economy and legislation.

One of agriculture.

One of zootechny, or the economy of animals.

One of sylviculture, (cultivation of forest trees,) and of botany.

One of chemistry, physics, and geology, applied to agriculture.

One of rural engineering, (irrigations, rural constructions, surveying, &c.)

The course on rural economy and legislation describes the relation between rural productions and the public revenue, as well as the different branches of industry, It shows what circumstances are favorable or unfavorable to such or such a system of cultivation, or to such or such a speculation in animals, or vegetables, according to the situation of the lands, the facility of communication, and demand for the products by the people of the surrounding country. The course embraces also rural legislation.

The course on agriculture embraces the study of the soil, of manures, of instruments of tillage, of different cultivated plants, an estimate of the different modes of culture, and the theory of the distribution or rotation of crops.

Zootechny treats of the production and amelioration of animals. The professor gives at first some ideas of anatomy and physiology generally, and then treats, in a practical way, of the raising of domestic animals, of their support, of their amelioration, of their hygiene, and their production..

The professor of sylviculture and botany gives first, a summary s of vegetable physiology and botany applied to agriculture. He te the subject of sylviculture, (cultivation of woods,) and of forest eco with special reference to the training, working, and preservation o forests of individuals and the communes.

The professor of chemistry, physics, geology, &c., has a wide as his titles show. His chief object is to take those views of the sci named which bear directly upon agriculture.

The professorship of rural engineering embraces geometry, me ics, and linear drawing, as applied to rural architecture, to the con tion of agricultural instruments, and particularly to irrigations.

To second the lessons of the professors, an equal number of tuto appointed. Their duties are to explain in private, to the pupils, ever is obscure or difficult in the oral instruction. They also see notes are taken of the lectures, &c.

Each school has its library, its philosophical and chemical ca adapted especially to agriculture, its agronomic museum of geo zoology, botany, and agricultural technology.

The pupils have an opportunity of witnessing on the farms conn with these schools, all the important agricultural operations, also mens of the best breeds of animals, and the mode of taking care of and using them: and they engage personally in all the important o tions connected with husbandry, so as to know how to conduct th after-life.

The number of scholars admitted is fixed by the government varies at the different schools. The price of board is 750 francs, ($

The State furnishes several scholarships to each school. Ha them is given to the most deserving of the pupils from the farm sc placed at the regional schools. The other half is divided amon scholars who are the most distinguished, after six months' trial, for labor and conduct. Scholarships from the national agronomic inst are also given to those most successful in study and conduct.

Towards the close of the third year, examinations are held, a those who sustain them, diplomas are given, and the way is laid for their admittance to the national institute.

To these schools a farm is always attached, for the purposes al indicated; also, a manufactory of agricultural instruments, an esta ment for silk, a place for preparing liquid manures, distillery, oil dairy, sawmill, &c.

The head men on the farm are essentially the same as those al described as connected with the farm schools.

National Agronomic Institute.

To give unity and efficiency to the system of agricultural instru the law provides for the establishment of a National Agronomic tute on a portion of the magnificent garden of Versailles. Sui buildings, and a library, laboratories, and appropriate collections o cimens, models and drawings, of implements, animals, seeds, plants, &c. are to be provided by the government. The plan embraces

1. A complete faculty of agronomic science.
2. A superior normal school of agriculture.
3. A higher institute for agriculturists.

To meet the wants of this latter class especially, a large farm is connected with the school. Here will be performed, at the expense of the State, all the experiments necessary to the progress of agronomic science, and to verify practically all the innovations and improvements proposed by others, before they are recommended to the public.

The theoretical and practical parts of this institute are really distinct, but they are placed under the general government of one director.

The professorships are nine, as follows:

One chair of rural economy and legislation.

One of agriculture.

One of zootechny, or the economy of animals.

One of sylviculture.

One of rural engineering, embracing leveling, irrigation, construction of roads, rural architecture, and mechanics applied to agricultural instruments.

The above professorships belong to practical agriculture. The others belong to the theory of the subject.

One of terrestrial physics and meteorology.

One of chemistry applied to agriculture.

One of botany, and vegetable physiology.

One of applied zoology.

Here, as in the lower schools, a number of tutors is appointed equal to the number of professors.

In addition to the director, professors, and tutors, the following officers will be appointed:

A prefect of studies.

A curator of the collections.

A librarian.

An overseer of studies.

To these will be added a corps of head men to oversee and manage the affairs of the farm. These will, in part, be called from the farm schools. For example, the institute will need twenty-one herdsmen, twenty-one grooms, twenty-one shepherds, and fifteen gardeners.

The French minister adds, "The end of the institute at Versailles, is not merely to afford agricultural instruction, but to open the way for studious men, who wish to direct their labors toward the application of science to rural industry. This is the first attempt of the kind that has been made. Industry has enriched the learned men who have explored the domain of the physical sciences and of chemistry for this object. But if agriculture has given reputation to any, it has not procured for any one a position which would enable him to make that the center of his studies. The institute at Versailles is intended to change this state of things by offering as a prize of laudable ambition, to th direct their researches to agriculture, a certain number of chair which an immense field opens."

VETERINARY EDUCATION.

In addition to the above system of agricultural education, the ment of France maintains three institutions (at Lyons, Alfort, a louse,) at an expense of over $75,000 a year, to qualify person study of comparative anatomy and physiology, and by opportu witnessing hospital practice, and investigating the symptoms nomena of disease in domestic animals, to practice veterinary and medicine. In countries where a large number of horses quired for cavalry service, and in all countries where live stoc tutes so large a portion of the motive power and capital of ev culturist, there should be one or more institution of this kind. in the world was established at Lyons in 1762; the second, at 1766; the third, at Berlin in 1792; and the fourth, at London i

VETERINARY SCHOOL AT ALFORT.

The Veterinary school at Alfort was instituted in 1766. It i fully situated on the river Seine, about six miles from Paris, braces every facility, of building, anatomical specimens and tions, books, and professors, for a complete course of instru veterinary medicine and surgery. The following sketch of th is taken from Mr. Colman's Report:

A student at his entrance must be well versed in the branches of education; and a full course of instruction require dence of four years. The number of pupils is limited to three Of these, forty are entirely supported by the government. T educated for the army; and are required not only to become the science and practice of veterinary medicine and surgery, wise in the common business of a blacksmith's shop, as far as nected with farriery. Students can be admitted only by the no or with the consent of one of the great officers of government, ister of commerce and agriculture. The expense of board and is about fifteen pounds, or eighty dollars a year; the instr wholly gratuitous, the professors being supported by the gover

The establishment presents several hospitals or apartments horses, cows, and dogs. There are means for controlling and ting, as far as possible, the temperature of the rooms, and for p a complete and healthy ventilation. There are stables wh patients may be kept entirely alone, when the case requires there are preparations for giving them, as high as their bodies, bath, which, in cases of diseased limbs or joints, may be of great There is a large college with dormitories and dining-rooms students; houses for the professors within the inclosure; r operations upon animals, and for anatomical dissections; a roo complete laboratory for a course of chemical lectures; a public lecture room or theater; and an extensive smithery, with several forges fitted up in the best possible manner. There are likewise, several stands, contrived with some ingenuity, for confining the feet of horses, that students may make with security their first attempts at shoeing, or in which the limb, after it has been separated from its lawful owner, may be placed for the purpose of examination and experiment.

An extensive suite of apartments presents an admirable, and, indeed, an extraordinary museum both of natural and artificial anatomical preparations, exhibiting the natural and healthy state of the animal constitution; and, likewise, remarkable examples of diseased parts. The perfect examples of the anatomy of the horse, the cow, the sheep, the hog, and the dog; in which the muscular integuments, the nerves, the blood-vessels, and, indeed, all the parts, are separated and preserved, and exhibited, by the extraordinary skill of an eminent veterinary surgeon and artist now deceased, who occupied the anatomical chair of the institution, exhibited wonderful ingenuity in their dissection and preservation, and present an interesting and useful study, not to the medical students only, but to the most ordinary as well as the most profound philosophical observer. I have seen no exhibition of the kind of so remarkable a character.

The numerous examples of diseased affections, preserved, as far as possible, in their natural state, strongly attract observation, and make a powerful appeal to our humanity in showing how much these poor animals, who minister so essentially to our service and pleasures, must suffer without being able to acquaint us with their sufferings; and how often they are probably compelled to do duty, and driven to the hardest services by the whip or the spur, in circumstances in which a human being would not be able to stand up. A great number of calculi or stones, taken from the bladders of horses after death, are exhibited, of a large size, and, in some instances, of a very rough exterior, which must have excessively irritated and pained the sensitive parts with which they came in contact. It is scarcely possible to overrate the suffering which the poor animal must have endured under such an affliction.

The department for sick dogs, containing boxes for those which require confinement, and chains for such as require to be kept in the open air, and a cooking apparatus and kitchen for the preparation of their food, was spacious, well-arranged, and contained a large number of patients. Any sick animals may be sent to the establishment, and their board is to be paid at a fixed rate of charges; twelve sous or cents, or sixpence per day for a dog; and fifty sous or cents, or twenty-five pence, for a horse, including medicine, advice, and attendance. In cases of epidemics or murrain prevailing in any of the districts of France, the best attendance and advice are sent from these schools to assist in the cure, and especially to watch the symptoms and progress of the malady. In countries where large standing armies are maintained, and where of course there are large bodies of cavalry and artillery to be attended

upon, as well as waggon-horses for carrying the supplies, the im
of veterinary surgery is vastly increased; but in countries
standing armies exist, the number of horses kept for use or
and of other domestic animals, bears a much larger proportio
number of human beings than we should be likely to infer wi
quiry; and renders the profession highly important.

A large and select library belongs to the establishment, and
for the cultivation of medicinal plants, and likewise of the gra
ployed in agriculture. A farm is likewise attached to the
which instruction is given in practical agriculture, and numbers
ous kinds of animals are kept for the purpose of breeding the
illustrating the effects of crossing. Some selected animals of
and of the best foreign breeds, horses, bulls, cows, and sheep,
for this special object.

Agricultural Reform Schools.

In addition to the special schools of agriculture and the a
arts and sciences above described, there is a class of institut
only in France, but in Germany, which are instrumental in dif
large amount of practical instruction in farm and garden indust
they are accomplishing a still higher purpose in cultivating
neglected or abused souls of their pupils—we refer to the Refor
Schools, of which a particular account will be given further on.

AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL

AT

GRIGNON IN FRANCE.

The best agricultural school in France is situated at Grignon, about twenty miles from Paris. It consists of an estate of about 1200 acres belonging to the French Government, which is rented for a term of forty years to a society of gentlemen interested in agriculture, who have the management of the institution, and who subscribed 300,000 francs, or about 60,000 dollars for conducting it. The government is represented in the board of management. The course of instruction embraces both the science and the practice of agriculture, and is designed for a class of students, who depend upon their own exertions for a livelihood, and especially for those persons who manage the estates of large proprietors, who in England or Scotland are called bailiffs, or stewards, and in France, agricultural engineers. The following is abridged from Colman's "*European Agriculture and Rural Economy.*"

The term of residence at Grignon is fixed at two years; but the pupil remains three months after his studies are completed, in order to digest and draw up the entire management of an estate, and describe its details in every department.

The students are divided into classes denominated internals and externals, or resident and non-resident. The former reside entirely in the house, where they are lodged and boarded, and pay about 800 francs, or 32 pounds, or 160 dollars, per year. The externals, or non-residents, provide for themselves, or lodge at the houses of the neighboring farmers, and pay a very small amount for their instruction. This arrangement is particularly designed to benefit poor scholars. Both classes are equally subject to the general discipline and rules of the institution; and are alike engaged in the same works and studies.

There are lectures every day in the week. At the commencement of each lecture, the professor examines the pupils on the subject of the preceding lecture; and they are required often to take notes, and present a written report of the lecture. Besides the professors, there are two monitors, who have been educated at the school, who labor with the pupils in the fields. They are expected, and it is their duty, to question the pupils on the subjects which have been treated in the lectures; to show their application; to illustrate what may have been obscure; and, in short, to leave nothing unexplained which is liable to misunderstanding or error. There are two public examinations annually, in which the scholars are subjected to a rigorous questioning in what they have been taught. If, at the end of two years, their conduct has been approved, and their examination is met successfully, they receive a diploma from the institution.

They are not only employed in the general work of the farm, but particular portions of land are assigned to individuals, which they manage as they please, and cultivate with their own hands; they pay the rent and expenses of manure and team, and receive the product or its value from the institution. Certain of them are appointed in turn to take care of the different departments of the farm for a length of time—such as the hog establishment, the sheep establishment, the cattle, the horses, the implements, &c. &c. They have likewise adopted a practice, which seems much to be commended—that of employing workmen, shepherds, cow-herds, &c., from foreign countries; as, for example, from Belgium and Switzerland, that they may in this way become acquainted with the best practices in those countries.

The time is thus divided and arranged among them:—they rise at four o'clock in summer, and at half-past four in winter. They go immediately into the stables to assist in the feeding, cleaning, and harnessing of the teams, and the general care of the live stock, according to their respective assignments. At half-past five they take a light breakfast; at six o'clock they go into the halls of study, and here they remain until eleven o'clock; at half-past six they attend a lecture, or course of instruction, which occupies them until eight o'clock; at half-past eight they are occupied in reading or in making notes of the lectures which they have heard, and the monitors before spoken of are present to render them any assistance required; at half-past nine o'clock there is another lecture or course of instruction for both sections, which occupies them until eleven, when they take their second or principal breakfast. From noon until five o'clock, the pupils are occupied in labor or practical operations. The professors, from time to time, take a section, and employ them in land-surveying, in drawing plans, and in levelings; others are occupied in mineralogical or in botanical excursions, or in inspecting the management of forest lands; others are occupied by their teacher in the practical management of farming implements, in the management of teams in the field, in sowing, and other general operations of husbandry, in a field devoted to these purposes; and a section, to the number of twelve, are every day employed in the direct labors of the farm, in ploughing, digging, harrowing, &c. &c. They work in company with the best laborers, that they may observe and learn their modes of executing their work. They are required to be attentive to every operation that is performed; and to present a full report of each day's work to the director-general.

At half-past five in winter, and at six in summer, they take their dinner. At seven o'clock in the evening they go again into the halls of study. From seven to half-past eight o'clock there is another course of instruction, or a repetition of what they have had before. Until nine o'clock they are occupied in their journals, or in making notes of their lectures. At nine o'clock the sleeping rooms are lighted, and they retire for the night.

There are several distinct professorships. The Professor of Practical Agriculture gives two courses; the one written, the other oral; and, like the lecture of a clinical professor at the bed-side, it is given in the fields. This professor understands not only how a thing should be done, but how to do it; and he can put his hand to every form of agricultural labor, such as ploughing, harrowing, sowing, managing the teams, feeding the animals, handling every instrument of agriculture, buying, selling, &c. In the words of his commission, his object is at the same time to form the eye and the hand; to teach his pupil how to learn; to command, to direct, and to execute. To this end it was necessary to form a complete agricultural organization for practice, independent of the exercises attached to the departments of the other professors.

The farm is composed of

Arable land, about	670	acres.
Land in wood and plantations . . .	365	"
Irrigated meadows	35	"
Gardens, including vegetable, botanical, fruit garden, orchards, mulberry plantations, osiers, and nurseries . . .	28	"
Ponds and water-courses . . .	15	"
Roads and lands in pasture . . .	50	"
Occupied by buildings	6	"

The animals on the farm include

Animals of draught or labor of different kinds	18
Oxen for fatting	20
Cows of different ages and races, and different crosses	100
Sheep, embracing the different kinds .	1100
Swine establishment	100

There are likewise on the establishment workshops or manufactories, if so they may be called,—

For the making of agricultural instruments;

A threshing-house and machine for grain;

A dairy room for the manufacture of different kinds of cheese and of butter;

A magnanerie, or establishment for silk-worms;

A stercorary for the manufacture of compost manures.

To all these various departments the attention of the students is closely called, and they are required to take some part in the labors connected with them.

Besides the farm belonging to the establishment, there is a field of one hundred acres devoted exclusively to the pupils, and principally to the culture of plants not grown on the farm. Here they make experiments in different preparations of the soil, and with different manures.

Every week two scholars, one of the second and one of the first year, are appointed to attend particularly to the general condition of the farm. Their business is to examine constantly the whole establishment; the works that are going on in every department; to look after the woods and the plantations; the gardens; the horses; the fatting cattle; the dairy; the sheep-fold; the swine; and the hospital; and to attend to the correspondence, and the visitors. This service lasts a fortnight, and there is a change every week, taking care always that there shall be one scholar of the first, and one of the second year associated. They attend to all the labors on the farm, and to all the communications between the principal director and inspectors, and the laborers. In the veterinary or hospital department of the establishment, they assist the surgeon in all his visits and operations; take notes of his prescriptions; make up and attend to the administration of his medicines; and observe particularly the sanitary condition of the stables and buildings, where the live stock, sick or well, are kept.

On Saturday evening, each scholar, to whom this duty has been assigned, makes to his fellow-pupils a full verbal report of what has been done. This report is transcribed into a journal designed for that purpose; and thus a continued history of the entire management of the farm is kept up. The whole school is divided into sections or classes of twelve each: six of two and six of one year's standing; and these sections are constantly under the direction of the Professor of Practical Agriculture.

As the establishment at Grignon may be considered a model agricultural establishment, it may be useful to go more into detail in regard to the course of instruction pursued here.

Once a week there is an exercise, which embraces every thing relating to the management of the teams and the implements.

First, for example, in the different modes of executing any work, and using the utensils employed. The harness, the collar, the traces, and how attached, the shaft-horse or the cattle attached to the load, and the adjustment of the load to their backs; the yoke, the single yoke, the double yoke; the pack-saddle; the harnessing of a saddle-horse; the team for ploughing; the team for harrowing; the team for drawing loads; the team for wagons, and for carriages with all their appurtenances; every one of these matters is to be practically understood, as well as the whole management of the team in action.

In ploughing, the turning the furrow, its inclination, its breadth and depths; the laying out of fields; the management of large and small fields; how to make the first furrow, and finish the last furrow; to lay the land flat, to break it up in clods; to plough it at a certain angle, to lay the land in curved furrows: these are all considered, and make part of the instruction given. The preparation, equipment, and use of every agricultural implement—such as ploughs, harrows, rollers, scarifiers, cultivators, sowing machines, trenching machines; the practice of sowing, the different modes of sowing, whether broadcast, by dibble, or in drills; the application of manure both as to time, mode, quantity, and preparation, and the composting of manures, are matters of inquiry and practice.

The cutting of grasses; the making of hay, and the construction of stacks; the harvesting of grain, by the scythe or by the sickle; appendages to the scythe, called commonly the cradle; and the grinding of scythes; the making of sheaves, and of shocks, or stacks; and the loading and the stowing away of grain, are matters to be understood.

A practical attention is required to every form of service on the farm; in the cow-house; the horse-stables; the fatting-stalls; the sheep-fold; the styes; the poultry-yard; the threshing-floor; the stercorary; and the store-houses for the produce of the farm of every description. The duties in this case embrace not merely the observation of how these things are done, but the actual doing of them until an expertness is acquired.

Leaving the practical department we come now to the course of studies to be pursued.

For admission into the institution some previous education is demanded, and the candidate is subjected to an examination before the principal and one of the professors.

First, he is required to present an essay upon some subject assigned to him, that his knowledge of the French language and grammar may be ascertained.

It is necessary, next, that he should be well grounded in the four great rules of arithmetic; in fractions, vulgar and decimal; in the extraction of the roots; in the rules of proportion and progression; and in the system of measures adopted in France.

In geometry, he must be well acquainted with the general principles of straight lines and circles, and their various combinations; and with the general measurement of plane surfaces.

In natural philosophy, he must understand the general properties of bodies; and be acquainted with the uses of the barometer and thermometer.

Candidates for admission must bring with them certificates of good character and manners, and must be at least eighteen years old. They are rigidly held to an attendance upon all the courses of instruction at the institution; and have leave of absence only on the application of their parents or guardians.

The studies of the first year are begun with a course of mathematics. Geometry and trigonometry are made a particular subject of attention; embracing the study of straight lines, and circular or curved lines on the same plan; the admeasurement of surfaces; the use of the compass; the recording of measurements; the delineation of measurements; the surveying of open fields, of woods, of marshes, of ponds or lakes; comparison of ancient land measures with those in present use; the use of the square, the chain, and the compass; the elevation of plans; the construction of scales, and the ordinary divisions of landed properties.

The study of various plans in any form; solid measure; conic sections, their principal properties, and their practical application; the theory and practice of leveling; the method of projections and their application; cubic measure of different solids, of hewn stones, of rough stones; the measurement of loose or broken stones, of sand, of lands excavated, of ground filled in, of stacks, and of heaps of manure; the cubic measure of trees standing, and of felled trees, of beams, and every kind of carpenter's work, of firewood, of walls, arches, and ditches or dikes; the ascertaining of the capacity of carriages, wagons, carts, wheel-barrows, pails, troughs, barrels and casks, basins or ponds, and different vessels in use, and of granaries and barns, and the determination of the weights of bodies. To all this is added a full course of trigonometry. They are accustomed likewise to the familiar use of the scale, of the square, of the compass, and of the compasses for delineation, and are often occupied in superficial, and in profile drawing.

The next course of instruction embraces embankments, the force of earths and liquids, or their pressure, at rest or in motion.

The materials employed in masonry; their uses and application in building—embracing stones, bricks, lime, sand, mortars, cements, plaster; and all the various modes of building.

The laying of walls for foundations; the erection of walls; the supports requisite; and the construction of passages, inclosures, and arches; the different kinds of woods, their absolute and relative strength; their duration, and the modes of preserving them; every kind of carpenter's work; the construction of floors, staircases, scaffoldings, and exterior supports; the constructions of roofs, in timber, with thatch, rushes, shingles, tiles, slates, zinc, or bitumen; the paving of roads, the formation of barn-floors, with clay or composition of bituminous substances which form a hard and enduring surface, are subjects of inquiry.

Next comes instruction in the blacksmith's shop, in the use of the forge, and the other implements of the trade; and in the various applications of iron and steel, of copper, lead, and zinc.

They are instructed, likewise, in the manufacture and use of leather and cordage; and in the various details of painting and glazing. The prices or cost likewise of all these different processes, are, as far as practicable, ascertained; and the modes of estimating such work are explained.

The next course embraces the elements of natural philosophy; and this includes chemistry, geology, and mineralogy.

First, the general properties of bodies, their divisibility, elasticity, and porosity or absorbent powers; and the special influence of this last circumstance upon the character of an arable soil.

The following are all subjects of study; bodies in the mass; the weight of bodies; means of determining the density of bodies and their specific gravity; the physical properties of the air; of atmospheric pressure; and of the construction and use of the barometer.

The study of hydrostatics; the pressure of liquids in their reservoirs, and against dikes and embankments; hydraulics; capillary attraction; the use of siphons and pumps.

The study of heat in all its various phenomena. Its effects upon solid and liquid bodies, and the changes which it makes in their condition; the phenomena of fusion, ebulition, and evaporation; of vapors; of the hygrometer or measurer of moisture, and the utility of the instrument; the conducting powers of bodies; of metals in particular; of free or radiating heat; application of heat to furnaces or kilns; laws of cold applied to bodies; power of emitting and of absorbing cold; measure of heat; means of determining the mean temperature of any place; influence of heat and cold upon vegetation; means of preserving certain vegetables from frost; construction and use of the thermometer.

Meteorology. Explication of the phenomena of dew; of white frosts; of clouds; of rain; of snow; their various influences upon harvest, and the whole subject of climate.

Study of light. Progress of light in space; laws of its reflection; laws of its refraction; action of light upon vegetation. The subject of vision. The polarization of light; the explication of the rainbow, and other phenomena of light; the prism.

Study of electricity. Conductors of electricity; distribution of the electric fluid in nature; power of the electric rods or points; electricity developed by the contact of bodies; of galvanic piles; their construction and uses. Atmospheric electricity; its origin; the formation of thunder clouds; action of electricity upon vegetation; of lightning; of thunder; of hail.

Chemistry. Simple bodies; compound bodies; difference between combination and mixture; atomical attraction; cohesion; affinity; what is intended by chemical agents. Explanation of the chemical nomenclature, and of chemical terms.

The study of simple bodies. Of oxygen; its properties; its action upon vegetation, and upon animal life. Nitrogen, sulphur, chlorine, carbon, hydrogen; their action upon vegetable and animal substances; their uses in veterinary medicine, and their influence upon vegetation.

The study of compound substances. Chemistry as applied to air and water; their importance in agriculture; their influence upon the action and life of plants and animals; the acids,—the sulphuric, the nitric, the carbonic, the chloric; the alkalies,—lime, soda, potassium, ammonia; their application in various forms. The salts in chemistry, and their various applications and uses; their importance as constituent parts of the soil, or as improvements.

The subject of marls and of earths, and of various substances deemed favorable to vegetation. Under the direction of the Professor of Chemistry, the students are taught to make analyses of different soils and marls.

To this is added a course of Mineralogy and Geology. This embraces the general properties of minerals; the physical, chemical, and mechanical character of mineral substances the most common.

The study of the distinctive properties and situation of those mineral substances which are most extended over the globe, and which are the most in use; such, especially, as the carbonate of lime; comprehending stones for building, for the making of roads and walls, lime-stones, marbles, sulphate of lime, or plaster of Paris; and all the variety of mineral substances ordinarily found, and of use in agriculture or the arts.

A course of Geology follows this, embracing all the leading features of the science, with a special reference to all substances or conditions of the soil connected with agricultural improvement.

In this case, the professor makes frequent excursions with the pupils, that they may become familiarly acquainted with the subjects treated of in the lectures, and see them in their proper localities; so that the great truths of geological science may be illustrated by direct and personal observation.

Next follows a course of instruction in horticulture, or gardening.

Of the soil; the surface and the subsoil, and practical considerations relative to their culture and products.

Of the climate; the temperature, the aspect and local condition of the land in reference to the products cultivated; the amelioration of the soil, and the substances to be used for that object, with the modes of their application.

The various horticultural operations, and implements employed; and manner in which they are to be executed. The employment of water in irrigation; modes of inclosing by ditches or walls; walls for the training of trees; trellises and palings; and of protections against the wind.

The different modes of multiplication; sowing, engrafting by cuttings and by layers, and practical illustrations of these different processes. The culture of seed-bearing or grain-producing plants; the choice of them; their planting and management; the harvesting and preservation of the crops.

Under this head comes the kitchen-garden, and the choice of the best esculent vegetables for consumption; the nursery, and the complete management of trees from their first planting; the fruit-garden, considered in all its details; and the flower-garden.

The general results of gardening; the employment of hand, or spade-labor; the care, preservation, and consumption of the products, and their sale. The gardens at Grignon are upon a scale sufficient to supply all practical demonstrations.

The next division embraces the botanical garden. Here the whole science of botany is treated in its principles, and their practical application. The study of vegetable organization, with a full account of the prevailing systems and nomenclature of botany, and the classification of plants. Vegetable physiology, in all its branches, and vegetable anatomy; comparison of plants in their native and cultivated states; influence of cultivation in developing and improving plants; the propogation of plants in their natural condition, or by artificial means; the subject of rotation, or change of crops.

The practical application of these botanical instructions; and especially in the examination of plants or vegetables which may be useful in an economical view.

The garden of the establishment embraces what is called a school of trees; a school of plants for economical and commercial purposes; and a school of plants for common use. These are all carefully classed and distinguished by their proper names. The pupils are accustomed to be led into the gardens by the professor, that his instructions may be fully exemplified and confirmed.

The next branch of science taught at the school is veterinary surgery and medicine. This embraces a course of anatomy and animal phisiology. It comprehends a full description of all the animal organs; and demonstrations are given from subjects, destroyed or obtained for that purpose. The functions of the different organs are likewise described; the organs of digestion, respiration, circulation, and the organs connected with the continuance of the species.

Every part of the animal, external and internal, is shown, its name given, its uses explained; its situation in relation to the other organs; the good points, the faults or defects in an animal; the peculiarities of different races of animals, with the modes of discriminating among them.

The choice of animals intended for different services,—as in horses for example, whether for the saddle, the race, the chase, the carriage, the road, the wagon, or the plough. Next, the treatment of the diseases of animals; the medicines in use; their preparation, and the mode of applying or employing them.

The next subject of instruction embraces a complete system of keeping farm accounts and journals, with the various books and forms necessary to every department.

From this the pupil proceeds to what is called rural legislation, embracing an account of all the laws which affect agricultural property or concerns.

The civil rights and duties of a French citizen, and the constitution of France.

Property, movable or immovable, or, as denominated with us, personal and real; of the divisions of property; of its use and its obligations.

Of commons; of laws relating to forests; of the rights of fishing in rivers; and of hunting.

The laws relating to rural police; to public health; to public security; to contageous or epidemic diseases.

The rights of passage of men or animals over the land of another; if any, and what.

Of crimes. Theft in the fields; breaking or destruction of the instruments of agriculture; throwing open inclosures; destruction or removal of bounds. Laying waste the crops by walking over them; inundation of fields by the stoppage of streams, or the erection of mills. Injury or breaking of public roads and bridges. Poisoning, killing, or wounding animals.

The duties of country magistrates; guards or justices of the peace. Of courts of law.

Of contracts, general and specific. Contracts of sale and prohibitory conditions. Of leases of different sorts. Of hiring labor; of the obligations of masters and servants. Of corporations, and the laws applicable to agricultural associations.

Of deeds, mortgages, bills of exchange, commissions, and powers of agency and attorney; insurance against fire, hail, and other hazards. Of the proof of obligations; written proof; oral testimony; presumptive evidence; of oaths. Of legal proceedings; of the seizure of property real or personal, and of bail.

The instruction proceeds under various courses, and I have so far given but a limited account of its comprehensiveness, and the variety of subjects which it embraces.

The study of the different kinds of soil, and of manures, with all their applications, and the improvements aimed at, take in a wide field. Under the head of soils there are the argillaceous, the calcareous, the siliceous, turf-lands, heath-lands, volcanic soils, the various sub-soils, loam, and humus.

Under the head of manures, come the excrements of animals, all fœcal matter, poudrette, urine; the excrements of fowls; guano; noir animalisée; the refuse of sugar refineries; the relics of animals; oil-cakes; the refuse of maltings; tanners'-bark; bones, hair, and horn; aquatic plants; green-dressings.

The application likewise of sand, clay, marl, lime, plaster, wood-ashes, turf-ashes, soot, salt; the waste of various manufactures; mud and street dirt.

The plants cultivated for bread; wheat, rye, barley, oats, buck-wheat, millet, rice, and the modes of cultivating them.

For forage,—potatoes, beets, turnips, ruta-bagas, carrots, artichokes, parsnips, beans, cabbage.

Lucerne, lupins, sainfoin, common clover, trifolium incarnatum, vetches, peas, lentils, and plants for natural meadows and for pasturage.

To these are added, cobra, rape, poppy, mustard white and black, hemp, flax, cotton, madder, saffron, woad, hops, tobacco, chicory, teazles.

The weeds prejudicial to agriculture, and the insects which attack the plant while growing, or in the granary or barn.

The production of milk; and, as already said, the making of butter and cheese.

The production of wool; tests of its fineness; classing of wools; shearing of sheep; weight of the fleece; washing of wool before or after shearing; and every particular in reference to the subject.

The fatting of beef, mutton, and pork. Choice of animals for this purpose; nutritive properties of different kinds of food; in what form to be given; grains entire or ground; roots cooked or raw, green or dry; the value of the pulp of beet-root after the sugar is expressed; refuse of the starch factories; of the distillery; of the brewery; fatting by pasture or in stalls; comparison of the live weight with that of the animal when slaughtered.

Care and management of the various kinds of domestic poultry.

Care and management of bees, with the construction of hives.

Care of silk-worms, and their entire management.

All these studies are pursued in the first year of the course; and the time is so arranged as to afford the diligent pupil an opportunity of meeting his duties, though the period is obviously too limited for the course prescribed.

The second year enjoins the continuance and enlargement of these important studies; the higher branches of mathematics and natural philosophy; an extended knowledge of chemistry; and a thorough acquaintance with mechanics, when the scholars with their professor visit some of the principal machine-shops and factories in Paris, or its environs, in order to become practically acquainted with them.

The students are further instructed in the construction of farm-buildings of every description; in irrigation, in all its forms; in the drainage of lands; in the construction of roads; in every thing relating to farm implements; and in the construction of mills and presses.

As I have said, organic chemistry is largely pursued with the various manufactures to which it is applicable; and animal physiology and comparative anatomy are very fully taught.

These studies are followed by a course of what is called agricultural technology. This embraces the manufacture, if so it may be called, of lime, of cement, of bricks; the preparations of plaster; the making of coal by various processes; the making of starch; the making and purification of vegetable oils; the making of wines, of vinegar, of beer, of alcohol, of sugar from the beet-root, including all the improvements which have been introduced into this branch of manufacture; and the pupils, under the direction of the professor, are taken to see the various manufactories of these articles, so far as they are accessible in the vicinity.

The whole subject of forests, of nurseries, of fruit trees, ornamental trees, trees for fuel, trees for mechanical purposes, are brought under the student's notice. This is a great subject in France, where wood has an extraordinary value; where immense extents of ground are devoted solely to the cultivation of trees; and where consequently it is most desirable to understand the proper kinds of wood to be selected for the purpose in view; the proper mode of forwarding the growth of the trees; and of removing them without prejudice to their restoration. Under this head comes the culture of

Trees for fuel.
Trees for timber.
Trees for house and ship building.
Trees for fruit, including all the varieties adapted to a particular climate.
Trees for their oily matter; such as olives.
Trees for their bark; to be used in tanning, and other purposes.
Trees for their resinous properties; such as pines.
Osiers and willows for making baskets.
Mulberry-trees for the support of silk-worms.

Next to this comes the culture of vines, and the establishment and care of a vineyard—a subject of great importance in France.

I have already spoken of the veterinary course of instruction. This embraces the whole subject of the breeding and rearing of animals; their training, shoeing, and harnessing, and entire management.

Under the head of farm accounts, the establishment itself at Grignon is made an example; the accounts of which are kept most accurately by some of the students, and open to the inspection of all.

A journal of every thing which is done upon the farm is made up every night; and these accounts are fairly transferred into a large-book.

To this is added, a particular account of the labors performed, and the occupation of each workman on the farm.

Next, a cash-book, embracing payment and sales, which are adjusted every fortnight.

Next, an account with the house; charging every article supplied or consumed.

Next, a specific account of each principal department of the farm; such as the dairy, with all its expenses and returns; the pork-establishment; the granary, &c.; which are all balanced every month, so that the exact condition of the department may be known.

As the students are advanced, more general and enlarged views of the various subjects of inquiry are given; such as,

The taking of a farm, and the cultivation or management to be adopted.

The influence of climate and soil.

The crops to be grown; and the rotation of crops.

Agricultural improvements generally.

The devoting of land to pasturage; to dairy husbandry; to the raising of animals; to the fatting of cattle; to the growth of wool; to the production of grain; to the raising of plants for different manufacturing purposes; or to such a mixed husbandry as may be suggested by the particular locality.

The use of capital in agriculture; the mode of letting farms; cash rents; rents in kind; rents in service; laws regulating the rights and obligations of real estate; the conveyance of real estate; with the various forms of culture in large or in small possessions, or on farms of a medium size.

The above is an imperfect and abridged statement of the subject matters of instruction and study at this institution, which may be considered as a model establishment; and a thorough education in the various branches referred to. must be, to any young man, an important and invaluable acquisition.

The question comes up, Will such an education make men better farmers? It must be their own fault if it does not. There may be some branches of the prescribed course, which may not appear to have a direct practical bearing; but there is not one without its use; if not directly, yet indirectly subservient to agricultural improvement; and if not immediately applicable to practice, yet intimately connected with the agricultural profession, adapted to increase its power, utility, and dignity, to elevate and adorn it.

President Hitchcock, of Amherst College, in a Report to the Legislature of Massachusetts on Agricultural Schools, in 1851, speaks of the above institution in commendatory terms, and of Mr. Coleman's description as sufficiently accurate of the system now pursued there.

The following abstract of the subjects of study and lectures at the Agricultural school at Grand Jouan is taken from President Hitchcock's Report.

AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL AT GRAND JOUAN.

THE Agricultural school at Grand Jouan, in Brittany, was established in 1833, by M. Neviere, who had been trained in this department of education in the Roville Agricultural school. In 1848 it was remodeled by the government and placed under the administration of the minister of agriculture.

SUBJECTS OF STUDY AND LECTURES.

Mathematical Sciences:—Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Mechanics, Surveying, Leveling, Stereometry, (measuring solid bodies,) Linear Drawing.

Physical and Natural Sciences:—Physics, Meteorology, Mineral Chemistry, Mineralogy, Geology, Botany.

Technological Sciences:—Organic Chemistry, or Agricultural Technology, Agriculture, Arboriculture, Sylviculture, Veterinary Art, Agricultural Zoology, Equitation.

Noological Sciences:—Rural Architecture, Forest Economy, Rural or Farm Accounts, Rural Economy, Rural Law.

ABSTRACT OF THE COURSE OF LECTURES ON GENERAL AGRICULTURE.

Agricultural Formation, (Terrain,)—1. *Soil*:—Constituent Elements, Classification of the Formation: Argillaceous, Siliceous, and peaty soils: Physical properties: Causes which modify these properties: Influence of soil on vegetation.

2. *Sub Soil*:—Sub soil active: Sub soil inert: Influence of sub soil on the soil and on the life of plants.

Agricultural Geography:—Astronomic situation of France: Mountains: *Valleys*, *Plains*, *Rivers*.

Agricultural Physics:—Atmospheric Air: Caloric: Light: Darkness.

Agricultural Meteorology:—Winds: Fogs: Dew: Rain: White Frost: Frost with Ice: Snow: Hail.

Climatology:—Influence of Climate: Climate of France: Regions.

Fertilization:—Considerations preliminary: Fecundity and Fertility.

1. *Improvement*:—Clay: Rocks: Sand: Slates: Lava: *Plombage*: Irrigations: Ditching: Ploughing: Movement of the sub soil: *Colmatage*.

2. *Stimulants*:—Stimulants of Mineral Origin: Lime: Marl: Calcareous earth: Broken shells: Sea sand: the Whiting: Shell fish: Plaster: Fire Ashes: Sulphate of Iron: Salts of Potash: of Soda: of Ammonia.

Stimulants of Vegetable Origin:—Soot: Ashes: Leached Ashes.

3. *Manures*:—Animal Manures: Excrements: Urine: Pigeons' Dung: Guano: Excrement of Animals: Muscular Flesh: Blood: Fish: Fat: Oil: Woolen cloth: Horn: Horse hair: Human hair: Feathers.

Vegeto-Animal Manures:—Litter: Horse dung: of Sheep: of horned Cattle: of Swine: of Rabbits.

Animal Manures Mineralized:—Animal charcoal: Bone.

Vegetable Manures:—Green crops ploughed in. Manure and Aquatic plants: Turf: poor Vegetables: Oil Cake: Tan: Mesh: pulpy matters: Leaves: Stubble.

Liquid Manures:—Urine of the Domestic Animals: Flemish Manures: Urine Water from *Fecularies*.

Compound Manures:—Manure of Jauffret and Lane: Compost: Slime of Ponds: River Mud: Marine Mud.

Breaking up the Soil:—1. Work Animals: Cattle: Horses: Cows: Mules: Asses: Race: Age: Mode of tackling: Length of working: Treatment: Necessary proportion.

2. *Instruments*:—Plough with or without fore wheels: Harrow: Scarificators: Rollers: Instruments for second dressing: Weeders: *Extirpators*: Necessary proportion.

3. *Tillage*:—Theory and Practice: Soil: Temperature: Flat Tillage: Flat Tillage in rows: Flat Tillage in ridges: Tillage by digging and by grubbing.

4. *Methods of moving the earth* :—Harrowing: Rolling: Second Ploughing: *Buttages.*

5. *Clearing Land* :—Heaths: Woods: Peaty lands: Clearing by the hand: by the Plough: Hoeing: Destination of the ground.

Draining :—Arable Land: Morasses: Ponds: Nature and destination of the soil.

Irrigation :—Theory and Practice: by Infiltration: Renewal of the Water: *Planches Bombees.*

Quantity of water by the acre, and according to the nature of the soil. Value of the bottoms irrigated and not irrigated. Mode of working these almost irrigated. Fertility and value of the products.

Fences :—Walls: Ditches: Hedges, living or dead.

Sowing :—Theory and practice: Sowing in lines: at random: selection, renewal, cleansing, and preparation of the seeds: Burying them by the harrow: by the plough.

Method of Treatment :—Weeding: Cleaning of thistles: stripping off the leaves: (*Effuillage* :) Bringing into the light.

Harvesting. General Considerations.

1. *Harvesting of Fodder* :—Instruments and Machines: Mowing: Hay making: Grindstones.

2. *Harvesting of Grain* :—Instruments and Machines: Mowing: Reaping: Threshing: *Liage.*

3. *Harvesting of Roots* :—Pulling up by the hand: by the plough: Uncovering: Cleaning.

Selection of the methods of preparing the Soils :—According to atmospheric circumstances: Nature of the Soil: its condition: its destination.

Distribution of Labor by Rotation :—Normal conditions: Exceptional conditions.

Rural Architecture.

Materials :—Siliceous, calcareous and argillaceous rocks: Fat, meagre, and hydraulic Lime: Sands: Mortar: Cements: Puzzolana: Plaster: Wood: Iron: Paving Brick: Roofing Slate: Tiles: Lead: Zinc: Leather: Ropes.

Works :—Foundations: Terracing: Properties of Earths.

Masonry :—Foundation Walls: High Walls: for support: for inclosure: Plastering: Pise.

Carpentry :—*Assemblages: Combles: Pans de bois:* Partitions: Staircases.

Joiners' Work :—Floors: Gates: Windows: Shutters.

Iron Work :—Large Iron: Ironing the Buildings.

Roofing :—Tiles: Slate: Thatch: Zinc: Bitumen.

Painting and Glazing :—Oil Painting: Distemper Paintings: Badidgeon, (coloring) Window glass.

Paving and Bricking.

Estimate of the Works :—Masonry: Carpentry.

Specification :—Form of the works.

Edifices :—Stable: Cow house: Sheep fold: Hog pen: Hen house: Pigeon house: Silk worm nursery.

Animal products :—Dairy: Cheese house.

Vegetable products :—Barns: Granaries: Wine cellars: Cellars: Corn pits: Ovens.

Agricultural Manufactures :—*Feculary* : Distillery: Sugar manufactory.

Reservoirs :—Watering places: Wash house: Wells: Cisterns: Ditches for urine: Ponds.

Dwelling house :—Form and Proportion.

Irrigations :—Dams: Taking out the Water: Sluices: Canals: Weirs: Slopes.

Drainage :—Damming up: Trenching: Cespool: Machines for drainage.

Routs :—Soil: Slope: Outline: Leveling: Materials: Support: Bridges: Estimate of Excavation and Embankment.

Group of Edifices composing a Farming Establishment :—Relation to the fertility of the soil and the culture and extent of the farm.

REFORM SCHOOLS, OR AGRICULTURAL COLONIES

FOR

YOUNG PAUPERS, VAGRANTS, AND CRIMINALS.

The frequent wars in which the several States of Europe have been engaged, by carrying desolation into the home, the field, and the workshop, have multiplied the number of orphans and penniless children beyond the ordinary causes of such visitations, and at the same time by weakening the bonds of law and virtue, have increased the temptations to a vicious life, and thus swelled the ranks of juvenile criminality. The extreme severity, and almost uninterrupted succession of belligerent operations, growing out of the revolutionary movement of France, left at its close, in every continental State, a larger number than ever before, of poor, neglected, and vicious children to care for, which arrested the attention of government and benevolent individuals, and led to many interesting experiments as to the best means of relief and reformation.

To Switzerland belongs the credit of having first applied the principles of domestic and agricultural training to the reformation of young criminals, and to the still higher purpose of preventing pauperism and crime, by incorporating these principles into the early education of orphan, pauper, and neglected children. The Orphan House of Pestalozzi, at Neuhof, opened in 1775, in which he lived with his pupils as a friend, pastor, and teacher, and on which he expended all his limited means; the Rural School for indigent children, established by Fellenberg in 1805, as an essential part of his great enterprise at Hofwyl, to demonstrate what could be done to elevate the people by a good education; the Agricultural Normal School of Vehrli, at Krutzlingen, to train a class of practical agriculturists to be skillful teachers; and the Reform School of Kuratli at Bächtelen, near Berne, for vicious and offending boys,—have all established the practicability of accustoming young persons, while engaged in their studies, to habits of useful manual labor, and the wisdom of subjecting all children, and especially the orphan and outcast, to the kindly restraints, and humanizing influences of domestic life. These principles of home, farm, and shop training, have been slowly recognized and introduced among the charitable, preventive, and reformatory agencies of other countries.

Small rural colonies, arranged in families, are fast supplanting the great hospitals and asylums where hundreds of orphans, it may be, are well fed, clothed and lodged, under salaried governors, secretaries, and keepers, but with little or nothing of that fireside education, that cultivation of the feelings, those habits of mutual help and courtesy, that plantation of delightful remembrances of innocent sports and rambles in the field, or that acquisition of ready tact in all household and rural industry, which are the distinguishing features of a good New England practical home culture.

Prisons, of high stone walls and barred windows, where hundreds of young inmates are congregated, with nothing useful for head or hands to do; or else working in large squads, at some undiversified employment, under the watchful eye of armed men, without the cheering word or sympathy of woman, acting and feeling as a mother, sister, or companion, or the wise counsel and example of men, acting like fathers, brothers, or friends—such places of detention and punishments are giving way to farm, reform, and industrial schools, where young criminals, or those who would soon become such in a majority of cases, the neglected and wretched outcasts of tainted homes, the offspring of vicious and intemperate parents, or the fatherless or motherless boys who commenced their downward career by committing petty thefts to keep life together, or under the influence of bad companionship, and of temptation too strong for their neglected moral culture to resist,—where such children are subjected to kind domestic training, to watchful guardianship, and are treated with a long suffering forbearance, while they are acquiring the habit of useful occupation in the workshop or farm, and are getting rid of their wild impulses and irregular habits, in the round of duties and employments of a well regulated household.

These rural and industrial schools, especially on the continent of Europe, constitute an interesting class of educational institutions. They are of two kinds. 1. Asylums and houses for pauper, orphan, deserted, and morally endangered children, who are destitute of that education supplied by the common relationship of the family. 2. Correctional and reformatory schools for children and young persons convicted of crime, or acquitted only as having acted without knowledge, but detained under a certain age for the purpose of being instructed and trained to some useful occupation. In all of them, farm and garden labor form the basis of all industrial instruction; trade and handicraft are recognized and provided for, but are deemed of secondary importance, except in a limited number of cases. Before giving a particular description of a few of the most interesting and successful institutions of each kind, we will give a brief statement of the principal features of the charitable and reformatory system now in operation in these countries.

In each of the cantons of Switzerland, in 1852, there were, at least, one rural or farm school conducted on the basis of a well regulated family. The superintendence is ordinarily committed to a married teacher, who is called the father of the family; and his wife, who assists in the domestic and industrial instruction of the girls, bears the title of mother. The school is open both to girls and boys, an arrangement which, under vigilant supervision and separate dormitories, is attended with but few inconveniences, and facilitates an economy of management, and a judicious distribution of labor, both in employment and instruction, and the diffusion of a true domestic spirit throughout the whole establishment. The number of inmates average from twenty to forty, and when the entire family exceed twenty, it is subdivided into lesser ones of twelve or more, who are placed under an assistant "father." The school instruction occupies three hours in summer, and four in winter; the remainder of the day being devoted to work in the field or garden, or at certain seasons of the year, and for a class of pupils, in some in-door trade or handicraft. Those children who show an aptness to teach, and a peculiar fitness to conduct or assist in establishments of this class, are sent to a rural normal school, like that at Krutzlingen. The subdivision into groups of families is an essential feature of the reformatory discipline in the institutions designed exclusively for young criminals, and morally endangered children. This organization in families, with a trial class, or section of six or eight of the best behaved pupils, who are allowed still larger liberty and are intrusted with special duties, into which the new comers are admitted until they can be properly classified, facilitates supervision, fosters a kindly emulation, and permits the application to each child of that sort of care and management best adapted to its character and disposition. The annual cost in the orphan school is about $35 per child, and in the penal colonies about $50 per inmate.

In Germany we find the best example of reform schools in the kingdom of Wirtemberg, and at Horn, near the city of Hamburg. In Wirtemberg the large number of children who were driven by the loss of fathers in the wars which ravaged all Europe from 1796 to 1816, and the scarcity of food, to beg or steal for a living, arrested the attention of government, and led to the organization of benevolent societies, and to the establishment of asylums for their relief under the active patronage of Queen Catherine in 1819.

In the reform schools of moral industry in Wirtemberg, the average number of inmates in each is fifty-six, of whom thirty-three are boys and twenty-three girls. If the domestic character and feeling is to be maintained, it is evident that one "father" and one "mother" can not direct and supervise so large a number. But it must be added, that the age for leaving is commonly fourteen years, though in some the girls are kept a year longer. The aim of the education given in these reformatory schools is to correct vicious habits, and to form honest men, good Christians, and useful members of society. Together with constant religious instruction every opportunity is taken of inculcating habits of order, propriety, and activity, and of inspiring the children with sentiments of obedience, humility, truthfulness and honor. Under a vigilant and continuous supervision, account is taken of their good or bad dispositions, of their progress and faults. In some schools the less hopeful are confided to children distinguished by their good conduct, who serve them as guides to bring them back to the right path, and to form them to the discipline of the school. Many, even of tender years, have contracted bad habits, which it is necessary to root out at any sacrifice. In such a case the head of a family takes a child particularly suspected, and elicits an entire confession, which is usually followed by a promise of amendment; from that time his attention is awakened, and no means are spared to effect a lasting reformation. Decency is to the mind what propriety is to the body, and every thing that might bring injury to the former is avoided, and a scrupulous watch kept over the latter. The girls and boys only meet at meals, in school and at religious exercises; at other times, during work, in play time, and in the dormitories, they are entirely separate. Each child has its own bed. In each sleeping apartment there is a male or female overseer who never leaves, and exercises an especial control over those children whom any peculiar circumstance points out to their attention. Through these precautions the union of boys and girls leaves no room for abuse, and all the heads of establishments agree that a too entire separation of the sexes is more prejudicial than useful. The intellectual instruction comprises religious instruction, the history of the bible, reading, writing, the German language, written and mental arithmetic, the history of Wirtemberg, geography, and music. Four or five hours daily are commonly given to lessons, according to the seasons and the demands of the field labor. The instruction is given by the head of the family, who is chosen from the certificated teachers. Each school has its little library. Every six or twelve months the children are subjected to an examination. In industrial education agriculture generally forms the basis, and the boys under the overlooker of the farm, perform all the requisite work, and also the heavier part of the housework. In most of the schools there are also workshops of tailors, shoemakers, joiners, weavers, bookbinders, &c.

The girls are principally employed in household work, sewing, and knitting; but they also take part in the out-door work of the kitchen-garden, the cow-sheds, and the poultry-yard, and assist in the hay and corn harvest. In the choice of these operations it is especially designed to retain them in the humble sphere in which they were born, by carefully avoiding whatever might tend to turn them against the employments upon which they must ultimately depend for subsistence—such as service, whether domestic or on the farm. Each reformatory school has a separate savings' bank, in which are kept the petty sums allowed to the children in the character of wages, or any presents they may receive, and each child has its little book of account. On leaving, the boys are commonly apprenticed to artizans, and the girls go to service. Care is taken to place them with employers of approved integrity, and in Christian families.

The reform school of the Rauhen-Haus, near Hamburg, has attached to it the largest and perhaps the best normal school for institutions of this kind in Europe. It was founded in 1833, by a few charitable persons, with the view of assembling and correcting the vicious and morally endangered children of the city. It was at first located in a modest thatch-covered house, whence its name is derived; but it has now increased to about a dozen buildings, each having its special application, which are variously dispersed in the midst of surrounding gardens, and of which several have been erected by the children themselves. The establishment consists of three divisions: 1. The reformatory school, containing about 100 children, of whom two-thirds are boys and one-third girls. 2. The institute of "brothers," which is composed of those assigned to the direction and superintendence of the different "families," and which serves also as a preparatory or normal school; it comprised 34 brothers in 1847. 3. The printing and agency department, containing a bookseller's shop and workshop for bookbinding and stereotyping. The organization of the Rauhen-Haus has been based on that of the natural family. The children are classed in groups of 12 each, forming a family, under a superintendent or father. All these are attached to their common center or father, the director, who presides over the whole. The chapel, the school, and the workshops alone are common to the whole, and serve as a bond of association among the different families.

The institute of "Brothers" attached to the reform school of the Rauhen-Haus, forms the basis of the whole organization. It was soon perceived that the work of improvement among vicious and delinquent children could not be confined to merely mercenary hands, and that it was a condition of success to employ persons influenced by motives of a higher nature. The brethren of the Rauhen-Haus may be compared, in some respects, to the "Frères de Charité" and "Frères de la Doctrine Chrétienne" in Roman Catholic countries. To qualify for admission to the institute, proof must be furnished of their conduct having been always honorable and without reproach, of the constant practice of Christian duties, of being animated with the spirit of a true religious calling, of freedom from physical infirmity, of good health and a sound constitution, of knowledge of agriculture or of some trade available in the establishment, or of aptitude for acquiring one, of the possession of a certain amount of learning or intelligence, and of the will necessary to profit by the special instruction provided in the institution. Consent of parents is also required. The age of admission for brothers is usually from 20 to 30 years of age, and notwithstanding the strictness of the conditions candidates have never been deficient. The institute, like the school of reform, is supported by private subscriptions and donations. In their relations with the school of reform, the brothers have charge of every thing connected with the direction of the families and supervision of the children, who can not be out of their sight by day or night. They take their meals with them, sleep in their dormitory, direct them in their work, accompany them to chapel, and take part in their recreations and games. They are at first attached to the families as assistants, and after a certain time of probation take the direction in their turn; they visit the parents of the children, to report their conduct and progress; they exercise over their pupils, after their departure, an active patronage, give instruction in the elementary classes, and keep up the writing and correspondence of the institution. The transfer of the assistants from family to family every month, places each brother successively in contact with all the children, extends his individual experience, and places the experience acquired in each group at the service of all the families. The brothers have also a course of special instruction under the director and two assistants. This occupies 20 hours per week, arranged in a manner to coincide with the working hours of the children, and comprehends religion, sacred and profane history, the German language, geography, pedagogy, singing, and instrumental music; there is also a special course of English. The pupils are classed in two courses. The duration of each course is two years, so that the education of each brother occupies an average period of four years. At the expiration of this time they ought to be prepared for being placed, as they usually are, in one or other of the following positions: as chiefs and fathers of families in the reformatory schools, organized upon the plan of the Rauhen-Haus; as overseers and assistants, or teachers in similar establishments; as teachers in rural schools; as directors, stewards, overseers, or guardians in prisons of various organization; as directors or fathers of a family in hospitals and charitable establishments; as overseers of infirmaries in the hospitals; as agents of provident and benevolent societies; or as foreign or home missionaries. The applications for brothers to fill these and kindred employments increase yearly, so that the director is compelled to extend the normal institute designed for their preparation.

The reformatory schools of France, established since 1840, are not only penal but preventive in their design and discipline. They receive, 1. Young persons of both sexes under twenty years of age, who have been condemned for some crime; 2. Young persons, who have been acquitted of criminal charges because they acted without discernment; 3. Orphans and young persons, who are abandoned by their parents, or whom parental example is educating for mendacity and crime; 4. Children, who are without employment, and in a bad way, or on the slippery verge of open vice and crime.

The 66th and 67th articles of the penal code of France, sweeps society of all the above classes of young persons, by authorizing the courts and magistrates to send them to a *house of correction*. Unfortunately this class of penal institutions had no independent existence prior to 1837, and the young criminals or suspected persons were mingled with those of greater age, and deeper depravity in the common prisons. The first step in the right direction was to remove them to a separate quarter of the prison, and then to apprentice out such as showed signs of reformation and amendment. These steps were found altogether ineffectual in reforming the morals, or inducing better habits in any considerable number of this class of persons; and two gentlemen, M. Demetz and the Viscount de Bretignères de Courteilles, both of them highly educated, and occupying positions of power and influence, the former at Paris and the latter as member of a departmental council, became deeply interested in devising some plan for supplying a happy home and the influence of domestic relations and occupations, for the destitute, the vagrant, and criminal children of their native country.

Both had visited the reform school at Horn, near Hamburgh, and M. Demetz had become particularly interested in the houses of refuge at Philadelphia and New York for juvenile delinquents. He was associated with M. Blout in 1837, in a second governmental commission to investigate particularly the moral influence of the prison discipline and prison architecture adopted in this country. Their report is a proper sequel to that of Beaumont and De Tocqueville in 1830. M. Demetz directed his efforts especially to effecting a complete and wide separation, and distinct treatment of vagrant and even convicted youths from adult criminals. "Society is answerable for its neglect of these young persons. They are abandoned to misery, and, therefore, to mischief. Society owes it to herself and to them, rather to prevent, than to punish their crimes. Let these juvenile delinquents be instructed in the doctrines and motives of the Christian religion. Teach their young hearts the exceeding sinfulness of sin. Show them the woe which awaits the wicked, and the infinite blessedness which will finally encircle the just. Dispel the ignorance, which darkens their intelligence. Bring them up in habits of industry, order, and economy. Try to overcome those vicious propensities, which will soon expand into full-grown crimes. Of the men who end their lives on the gibbet, experience shows that most have been depraved in childhood. No friend has checked the growth of their licentious passions. They have been precocious in badness, and unreproved."

On this noble mission M. Demetz and Viscount de Courteilles entered, to make a demonstration to the government and benevolent men of France, of a practicable scheme of rescuing unfortunate, vagabond, and depraved boys from destruction, and give them the power of obtaining an honest living. Their plan involved extensive grounds and buildings, which should not present the aspect of prison-yards and walls, but the facilities of education and occupation, and the exercise of the charities of a paternal home. It was to be an agricultural and educational colony. For this purpose they selected an estate a few miles from Tours, within marketable reach of several large towns, healthy and fertile, not highly improved, but capable of profitable cultivation, and devoid of old and large buildings erected for other purposes.

The buildings were erected gradually, as the number of inmates increased, although the plan of the whole establishment was projected at the outset. It consisted in a series of houses, each of a peculiar construction, and each adapted to a family of forty persons. Each family has its yard, fruit trees, and kitchen-garden. The whole is not inclosed by brick walls, or high palisades, but by low, green hedges, over which any person could climb, and through which a boy, so disposed, could easily creep without drawing attention. The real confinement to the spot is found in the encircling and attractive charities of the domestic life, and occupations of the institution.

As soon as the estate had been secured, and the household plan of arrangement, instruction, and discipline determined on, the projectors endeavored to find, or train, intelligent and devoted teachers and assistants, who should understand thoroughly the details of the moral and industrial education which alone presents any prospect of reforming a juvenile criminal, and who, possessing that personal piety, which has its motives in the principles of Christianity, can live, according to a rule of monastic strictness, and yet exercise the habits and affections of a free domestic life,—while subjecting themselves to the simplicity and roughness of country employment, can exhibit the courtesies which are generally associated with city manners, and while voluntarily adopting the discipline of a camp or prison, be neither jailors nor drill sergeants. The raising up of such a class of foremen and teachers, for this and similar institutions, is one of the most valuable services rendered by the projectors of the agricultural colony of Mettray. The department of the colony for training these teachers is called the preparatory school of foremen.

The colonists are brought to the institution, not in prison wagons, with guards and in chains, but by the directors themselves, who employ the favorable opportunities of the journey to cultivate an intimate acquaintance with the past history and disposition of the youths. They are encouraged to converse freely with each other, and the new conductors, and every exhibition of truthfulness or falsehood, of vivacity or dullness, of sobriety or intemperance, of aptitude or aversion to particular employments, is made the data for their right classification as to associates and occupation.

On their arrival they are placed in the family best adapted to the characteristics of each—their deficiencies in manners and character. and the facilities for cultivating better habits of life. They are made cleanly in person and dress—they are informed as to the rules of the establishment—the chaplain addresses them solemnly on the new life to which they are called, the advantages they will enjoy, and the practical results which that life is calculated to subserve. They are gradually taught the rights of private property and the love of the domestic hearth, and become familiarized with the sentiments and the duties which that sacred idea implies—and to which most of the inmates of the institution were strangers on their arrival. While they are taught the occupations of the farm and garden, those who have an aptitude for handicraft are taught such trades as are wanted by country people, so that they can find occupation as wheelwright, harness-maker, shoemaker, blacksmith, in a village, away from the great cities—those seats of corruption, want, and vice.

Much attention is paid to cultivating the taste and the habit, of innocent and rational amusement—as the great safeguard of the young. The principle of all the amusements is to attach them to their own homes, and to make them in some way useful, either as teaching and enabling them to do good to others, or as developing and exercising their own bodily and mental powers. They are taught, therefore, to use the fire-engine, to swim, to save persons from drowning and to use the remedies to recover them, to climb a mast, to handle the sails and rigging of a ship, &c., and in wet weather they are allowed the use of a lending library, and to play at chess, and more simple games. On special occasions there are concerts and social sports.

The spirit of mutual help and self-government is cultivated. The occupants of each family are allowed to choose by election two of the colonists, (called freres ainés, or elder brothers,) whose authority lasts a month, and the directors judge of the condition and disposition of the house by the parties thus selected. These, with the Sisters of Charity, whom one of the visitors to the institution designates as "angels whom Heaven has given to the earth, and whom the earth gives to Heaven" form the domestic staff of each family.

The colonists are also allowed to act as a jury, fining the punishments on their companions and themselves, subject to the reversal or mitigation of the directors. The effect, on the whole, has been salutary. In one of the houses a boy was forced by his companion to return a book he had received as a reward, because he subsequently misconducted himself. In another they demanded the expulsion of a colonist, who had degraded the family to which he belonged. When a portion of the poorer districts of Lyons was visited by the disasters of a flood, the boys voluntary gave one of their meals to the sufferers, and one of them who refused was compelled by the rest to eat his portion alone at the end of the table. On one occasion, a visitor desired the boys of a family to point out the three best; all eyes were turned immediately toward the three most worthy. "Tell me now, who is the worst?" Every eye was lowered, and a single boy advanced from the rest and said in a whisper, "Mister, it is me."

The chief reward is to be enrolled in the table of honor, which any one who has remained three months without punishment is entitled to. More than half of the boys are, on an average, at any one time, inscribed on this table, and some even for four and six times, who therefore have fallen under no punishment for eighteen months.

Of the 1,184 children received at Mettray from its foundation to the 1st of January, 1850, 717 were completely ignorant; 270 had commenced reading; 143 knew how to read; 54 only knew how to write. The greater number who have left, have been taught to read, write, and cypher. Of 528 who were placed out in various situations, only 46 are known to have relapsed into crime; of these, 33 were children from towns, 19 being from Paris.

To meet the great difficulty of obtaining proper moral agency for the management of the young by adding the motives of religion, an order of the agricultural brothers of St. Vincent de Paul has been instituted by M. Bazin, who, so early as 1828, founded the agricultural colony of Mesnil-St.-Firmin, in the department of Oise, for rearing orphan children in agricultural labor. This religious corporation, composed entirely of laymen, has for its object to supply directors or assistants to agricultural colonies of pauper children, and especially of foundlings. Above all, as being *laborers*, the agricultural brothers have no uniform but that of labor; and if they are distinguished from other agriculturists, it is by their self-denial, their devotion to the common cause, and by that hope of a divine reward which doubles their powers. The "brothers" are placed in every respect on the same footing with the boys under their charge. They take their meals with them, and have only the same accommodation for rest.

There is an institution at Paris of the same general character, called the society of St. Nicholas, founded on a small scale in 1827, but which, since 1846, has contained above 900 children, of very mixed origin, variously collected by charitable societies and generous patrons, and many of them only by the number assigned to each. The payments are 20 francs per month for orphans, and 25 francs for other children; and for this small sum the establishment provides maintenance, instruction, and apprenticeship to a trade. Seventy persons in charge live in the establishment, who, with twenty-five master-workmen, living out of the house, make an average of one *employee* to every seven or eight children, a proportion which insures a vigilant surveillance day and night. The teachers, called "*freres*," are all laymen; but they extend their care not merely to the instruction, but also to the education of the children, and to make them honest, industrious, and able workmen. The remarkable peculiarity of this school is the organization of its industry in workshops, which are hired, together with the apprenticed services of the children, by master-workmen of approved character in various trades, such as watch-makers, jewelers, engravers, and all the multifarious occupations, half arts, half trades, which supply the numerous articles of refinement specially produced at Paris; besides the ordinary trades of baker, shoemaker, tailor, and so forth. The children do not go to these workshops except on the express requirement of their parents, and those employed give, on the average, eight hours and a half daily to work, and two to instruction in classes. The apprenticeship is for two, three, or four years, according to the profession; and, after its close, the young people may remain in the establishment, pursuing their work, and depositing what they earn, beyond the cost of their sustenance, in the savings-bank. The employers find materials, tools, and skill, and take the profits of the trade, undertaking to treat the children well, as kind and faithful masters.

In Belgium, the government has undertaken the work of rescuing the destitute and delinquent children from their evil ways, and converting them into moral and productive laborers and valuable citizens. Before embarking in the enterprise, M. Ducpetiaux, inspector general of prisons and institutions of public charity in the kingdom, was commissioned to visit the different states of Europe, and gather their experience in this class of institutions for guidance in the organization of a great reformatory school at Ruysselede. There is a practical question yet undecided, at least to the satisfaction of all those who are engaged in this work, whether preference should be given to large, or small agricultural colonies. The Belgian view is, that sufficient effect can be produced only by an establishment large enough to permit every form of experiment in the organization of a series of various works, graduated according to the capabilities and future objects of the colonists. Such is the design of the reformatory schools at Ruysselede; and when this institution is in full operation, it will remain to be decided, whether it is requisite to erect other similar establishments on the same scale, or to form branch establishments in communication with the parent institution.

In England there are three kinds of preventive and reformatory institutions. 1. Union or district schools for pauper children, connected with the union workhouse. 2. Ragged or industrial schools, for neglected and vagrant children in large cities. 3. Reform schools for juvenile criminals.

On the 9th and 10th of December, 1851, a "Conference on Preventive and Reformatory Schools," was held at Birmingham, at which several of the most active promoters of this class of schools attended and compared the results of their observations and experience, with a view of deciding on the proper course of action to be adopted by the legislature and individuals, to reach and reform the "perishing and dangerous classes" of children and juvenile offenders in England. The following seem to be the results arrived at, as set forth in the report of the proceedings:

The children whose condition requires the notice of the conference, are:

1. Those who have not yet subjected themselves to the grasp of the law, but who, by reason of the vice, neglect, or extreme poverty of their parents, are inadmissible to the existing school establishments, and consequently must grow up without any education; almost inevitably forming part of the "perishing and dangerous classes," and ultimately becoming criminal.

2. Those who are already subjecting themselves to police interference, by vagrancy, mendicancy, or petty infringement of the law.

3. Those who have been convicted of felony, or such misdemeanor as involves dishonesty.

The provisions to be made for these three classes, are:

For the first, free day schools.

For the second, industrial feeding schools, with compulsory attendance.

For the third, penal reformatory schools.

The legislative enactments needed to bring such schools into operation, are:

For the free day schools, such extension of the present governmental grants, from the committee of council on education, as may secure their maintenance in an effective condition, they being by their nature at present excluded from aid, yet requiring it in a far higher degree than those on whom it is conferred.

For the industrial feeding schools, authority to magistrates to enforce attendance at such schools, on children of the second class, and to require payment to the supporters of the school for each child from the parish in which the child resides, with a power to the parish officer to obtain the outlay from the parent, except in cases of inability.

For the penal reformatory schools, authority to magistrates and judges to commit juvenile offenders to such schools instead of to prison, with power of detention to the governor during the appointed period, the charge of maintenance being enforced as above.

We make some extracts from the remarks of the different speakers, for the sake of the facts and suggestions which they contain.

The Chairman, M. D. Hill, Esq., Recorder of Birmingham, thus comments on the propositions before the conference:

The perishing and dangerous classes of society consist of a numerous and increasing body of young persons, who are being trained in a way they should NOT go; by some they are called the Arabs of the streets; by others the outcasts of society; by others again, human vermin. However designated, the terms employed make it manifest that they are sometimes objects of fear, sometimes of aversion, often of pity; that they are not of society, but somehow for its misfortunes interwoven with it. It is this class which forms the head-spring of that ever-flowing river of crime, which spreads its corrupt and corrupting waters through the land. It can not be dried up. It has never yet been purified. Nor, indeed, have any well-directed efforts, at all commensurate with the magnitude of the evil, ever been instituted. It therefore, becomes of the very deepest importance, not only with regard to the temporal and eternal happiness of that particular class, but for the safety of all, old and young, high and low, rich and poor, that the state of neglect and mistaken treatment in which these miserable beings are found, should cease to exist. * * * The classes in question are divided into two great and important branches: those who are living in ignorance, vice, or neglect, but who have not come under the animadversion of the law, and have not yet received any sentence from its ministers. These form the unconvicted branch. The other branch is composed of those who, for whatever offense, and before whatever tribunal, have come under the grasp of the law.

By respectable classes of society, I take not into consideration, when I employ the term, whether the individual is rich or poor. I call that man a respectable father, whatever may be his station, who is imbued with a right sense of responsibility to God and his children; who cares incessantly for their welfare; and who, while before all things he values a religious and moral training, yet also desires instruction for them in such branches of knowledge as will enable them to fight their way through the competition which besets every path in life. But the class we have in view is deeply below this. The poor but respectable man who discharges his duty to the best of his ability, is far above the negligent parent, and infinitely above the perverting parent, who wilfully abuses his charge. The difference between the highest in the realm and the lowest is measurable; but the difference between the respectable father and the man who corrupts his child is immeasurable, and consequently infinite. Now, the fact is, that these two classes can not be brought into connection in schools. It is a curious circumstance that the objection does not come so much from the higher class as from the lower. The children of that lower class will not place themselves in a position to be looked down upon, as they call it. Their love of education and training is not strong enough to overcome this objection; and you can not persuade them to enter the national schools. But if you could it would still be far from expedient to exert such an influence, because these poor creatures possess great powers for mischief. Thrown upon their own resources they have learnt self-reliance; they despise all restraint, both for themselves and others; and they would become the most dangerous leaders into evil courses, and the most fatal seducers of the better trained children, who, brought up under the eye of their parents, have not at their early age the power of self-government to resist the seduction. But there is an advantage to the better class in making distinct schools for this lower branch. Take these children away from the streets; let them no longer infest the path of the good man's child, and you destroy the danger which, I can tell those who are unacquainted with their humbler neighbors, weighs heavily on the minds of parents in the respectable class, keeps them in fear and trembling, lest their children should be corrupted by evil companions. Again, there is another advantage arising from these separate schools. We find that whenever a means is given to a lower class by which it is raised in the social scale, a stimulus is applied indirectly, but with great force, to the classes above it.

Now, let me go to the second branch, which is composed of two classes. The first consists of those who have been convicted of some petty offense, that does not necessarily imply the loss of honesty. With this class we shall interfere to some extent; but we shall not dethrone the parent altogether. For this it is proposed that schools shall be established called feeding schools. And here steps in the principle of coercion, which it behooves you and the public, and through you and the public, the legislature, maturely to consider. Where, either through neglect or perversion, the parental tutelage has been abused, or through misfortune it has failed—as where the father has done his best, but the child's nature resists his authority—we hold it to be the duty of society to step in and prevent the child falling into ruin. But we do not go beyond what is absolutely necessary. We furnish the child with food so that he may be able to attend the school; and we compel his attendance by some punishment if he does not come; not so much to operate upon the child as upon the parent, who not unfrequently keeps the child from school to employ him for his own purposes, sometimes to beg, and sometimes to steal. I forbear to state what kind of education is to be given in these schools, beyond saying that literary and scientific knowledge will be secondary if not tertiary. Our object is not to make learned thieves, but plain, honest men. We will sedulously keep in view that labor is, by the ordination of Providence, the great reformer; and thus is the primal curse wrought into a blessing beyond price.

I pass then to the second division of the second branch, which may be termed a third class. There the child has been convicted of an act of dishonesty. And I dwell on that offense, not more because of its gravity, morally considered, than because it leads to the conclusion that the child has entered on crime as a calling. So long as offenses are clear of dishonesty, as in cases of assault, and so forth, so long no criminal can make them the means of livelihood; but an offender once embarked in the practice of dishonesty will never be reclaimed, except by a long course of reformatory discipline. His daily wants compel him to repeat his offenses until not only his conscience has become indifferent to guilt, but his moral sense is gradually inverted. He prides himself on his zeal and dexterity, and if, as in the case of younger criminals, he assists in the maintenance of his parents and the family of which he is a member, he soon persuades himself that his pursuits are not merely blameless but laudable. Now, then, in my mind—and I here, as elsewhere, speak the sentiments of those I represent—the parent has abandoned his authority, and abdication must be followed by revolution. The child must be taken under the protection of the public; he must be sent to the reformatory schools; not, however, for two or three months only; he must be treated as if he had—what he most assuredly has—a dreadful disease upon him; and he must be kept under treatment until cured. The parental authority is gone; the boy leaves the home to which he owes nothing but his existence, which has become a curse; and will be retained in the school according to the sentence of the judge or the magistrates by whom he was sent. Now, it would not be wise for us to attempt such a violent change, as to call on the authorities so to frame the sentence in its form as to authorize the conductors of the school to detain the child until he is cured; but when it is felt by the public that the boy is subjected to a treatment which confers an inestimable benefit on him, both as to this life and that to come, then the term of sentence may be, without any shock to public feeling, extended to such a period as will give reasonable expectation that it will be long enough to effect a thorough reformation. And now is the time to enter on the great question: Is it possible to reform these offenders? I know it is the belief of many—entertained in private, but not openly avowed—that to aim at reforming thieves is to attempt impossibilities. I know a shrewd gentleman, who said he would walk a hundred miles to see a reformed thief. I think I could cure him of scepticism, and furnish him, at the same time, with many wholesome excursions. I will not go far into the question myself; I will leave it mainly to gentlemen present, who have personal knowledge on the subject—who come here to-day as witnesses, and are ready to depose to most important facts. But I must not altogether pass by this vital part of our case. We have an asylum in this county, at Stretton-on-Dunsmore, which was established in 1818, by the benevolent magistrates of Warwickshire. It has, therefore, been in existence a sufficient time to enable us to speak with the confidence arising from long experience. At first, while the experiment was new, and the managers found nothing around them from which to derive instruction, the number reformed was only 48 per cent. But you must recollect that Stretton-on-Dunsmore is not a prison, nor a prison disguised. There are no physical means of keeping a convict at the place; and, until lately, there were no legal means to bring him back if he chose to depart; and even now the legal means are not so easily worked as could be desired, as some of us well know. We find, therefore, that the failures are generally composed of those boys who can not be induced to stay until they have felt and become convinced that advantage will accrue to them from remaining; consequently the boys deserting are in general the new comers. The real benevolence of his treatment becomes manifest to the lad if he remain long enough (and no long period is required,) to distinguish between kindness and indulgence. He also makes another discovery equally essential to his contentment with his position. He finds that the professions of good-will towards him, and the strong desire to confer lasting benefits upon him, which he hears from those under whose care he is placed, are sincere. For the first time in his life, perhaps, he finds that he may safely put confidence in those around him, and then, but not till then, does he slowly, but surely, open his heart to wholesome feelings of reverence and affection. And thus alone can the soil be prepared for the good seed. He remains, then, among a race of beings in whose existence he had previously no more belief than we have in that of fairies and good genii—he remains, and is reformed. I have said, that at first the reforms at Stretton were 48 per cent., or in other words, that where 48 were reformed, 52 turned out ill. That proportion has, however, been gradually raised, and the last time I made inquiries on the subject, the reforms had reached 65 per cent. I am afraid, however, that the financial position of the institution reflects discredit on the county of Warwick, and especially on the town of Birmingham, which, I grieve to say, has added more to the inmates and less to the funds of the asylum than any other district. There is another institution of which I have some knowledge. In the year 1848 I made my way to Mettray. near Tours, in France. I was received with the utmost kindness, and admitted into the fullest confidence by M. Demetz, the illustrious founder of the institution—a judge who descended from the bench because he could not endure the pain of consigning children to a prison when he knew that their *future* would be made worse than their *past*. I examined or rather cross-examined, each department of the institution, with all that unamiable incredulity which thirty years' practice at the bar may be supposed to have generated; I began with a sort of prejudice—a determined suspicion—fighting my way backward, step by step, until, as proofs advanced, the conclusion was forced upon me that my position was untenable. I found that at Mettray, where they possess and exercise the power of compulsory retention, and where, for desertion, a boy is sent back to the prison from which he had been withdrawn—the amount of reformation reached to what I at first thought the incredible proportion (but which I fully verified) of 85 per cent.

Well, if these two statements obtain your confidence in their accuracy, there is an end of the question; but you shall hear the witnesses to whom I have appealed, who, under different circumstances, and in other places, have been personal cognizant of facts, the relation of which will induce you, perhaps all the more readily, to put faith in those which I have laid before you. If then we take the question of the possibility of reformation as settled, at least for the present, let me touch for an instant on the subject of cost; for, although in public few will idententify themselves with an objection founded on expense alone, yet in private the word *cost* is pretty frequently heard. Let us see what is our position. We have doubtless the power of postponing our duty to the body of children to which I have referred; and it must be confessed that we exercise this noxious privilege pretty freely. We have the power of letting them grow up in ignorance, vice, and crime—of neglecting the plant when young and tender—and of toiling to make it straight when old and stiff. But in this, as in all other debts, we pay most usurious interest for our procrastination. Let us now see what the expense is of reforming a boy at Stretton-on-Dunsmore. In order fairly to ascertain that expense, you must not only take the cost of the reclaimed, but of those also who are failures. Just as the carpenter, when he buys his timber, pays an equal price for that portion which he cuts away into useless chips as for that which remains in his finished work; so that the cost of his roof or his floor is not to be calculated simply by the quantity of wood therein found, but by the whole quantity required in its fabrication. The cost of reforming a boy, then, under these circumstances, is from £12 to £16 a year. Or, having regard to the whole average time demanded for a cure, about £31. Now, before I contrast this cost with that of dealing with a criminal in later life, let me call attention to Mettray. The accounts of that admirable establishment are kept on a very perfect system, and with great minuteness—in such perfection that some of our merchants might study book-keeping with advantage in the counting-house of Mettray. Well, the gross cost of a boy at Mettray is £20 a year; but then you must know that at Mettray not only the cost of those not reformed is added, but the cost of a most valuable department of the institution, namely, that of a house of refuge, where those who have gone out into the world, if employment fail them, or if they shall be placed in circumstances in which they require the care of a friendly hand, may ever find a welcome and a home. Taking, therefore, the reformed, the unreformed, and the guests, the gross cost is £20 per annum; but by the productive labor of the boys the cost is reduced to £12, the average labor of each boy amounting to £8 a year. The total cost of each reformation at Mettray is, as I have before stated, £42; greatly above that of Stretton, no doubt; but then it is to be considered that the reformations at Mettray are 20 per cent. more numerous than at Stretton, and a little reflection will convince every one who hears me that the additional 20 per cent. implies the existence of a more powerful, and consequently more expensive, reformatory apparatus at Mettray than at Stretton. The secret lies in the employment of a far greater number of teachers and superintendents at Mettray in proportion to the number of the lads; but I can answer for it that the enlightened and benevolent conductors of Stretton would, if their funds permitted, gladly pay the additional cost to obtain the additional success. We will now contrast the cost of a vigilant reformatory administration, taking hold of its subject in his earliest years, with that of our established system, or want of system, by whichever term it may be most appropriately designated. Here the lad is left to rove abroad with very short intervals of restraint, living either on misplaced and most pernicious charity, (so called,) or by depredation; but will any one, having the slightest tincture of knowledge respecting such lads, for a moment affirm that although the cost of their subsistence and evil training finds its way into no account, and therefore does not appear in our statistical tables, it is, in truth, of so small an amount as £12 or £16 a year? I know there is a prevalent fallacy that a cost which does not come out of rates or taxes, or some public fund, is no cost at all. Why, when the thief comes into my house—as he did some time ago—and afterwards being found in the garden, was angrily thrust forth into the highway by the gardener, who did not know that the intruder had £10's worth of silver plate in his pocket to console him for the indignity; why, when that £10 was gone, was I the less a sufferer because it neither went in rates nor in taxes? Again, if a thief is under the control of the law, you put him on very spare diet—his beer is gone—his tobacco—all are gone. He is ruthlessly bereft of all his luxuries; and no creature on earth revels so wastefully in coarse luxury as your thief. Such is the burden which the thief at large casts on the community; and though we have no means of calculating its exact weight, we can not fail to see that, as between the thief in freedom and the thief in custody, the prison must be under prodigal management indeed if he is not less costly to the public when his rations are doled out by the gaoler than when he is roaming at liberty and helping himself. Nevertheless, his treatment under the hands of the law is, according to our present system, a very costly impost. Of his tendencies in childhood or early youth, which lead by a sure consequence to crime, we take little note. He wanders about the streets without control, he forms habits of idleness, he learns to gamble, he is precocious in debauchery, and we let him alone. At length his acts become cognizable by law; but unless he is singularly unfortunate, his career of impunity is not yet run. In the course of time, however, it comes to an end, and he appears before the magistrate for what is called his first offense, meaning thereby his first detection. A short imprisonment ensues, just long enough to dissipate any unfounded horror which he may have entertained of a jail, to blazon his name on the criminal roll, to make him acquainted with the body of which he is now a full member, and to turn his mind to the advantage of exercising his profession in such a manner as to escape as much as possible the casualties incident to his way of life. On every committal he is told to take warning, and he does take it, though not precisely in the sense in which it is given. He receives it as a warning, not against crime, but against detection, and acts accordingly. Nevertheless, in spite of all his care, he falls from time to time under the animadversion of the law. Now, I am putting aside all higher considerations, and pinning myself down to pounds, shillings, and pence. Fix your attention, I beseech you, on the necessary cost of this process. Ordinary individuals require only the care of a physician when the body is ailing, and of a clergyman for their spiritual maladies; but your malefactor demands the constant care of a suite of attendants belonging to neither of these professions. He is apprehended by one or more of the police, who, having sacrificed much time and labor to obtain a satisfactory introduction to him, attend him to his new home with the most watchful care. His apartment in this home, or, as it is more commonly termed, his cell in the prison, is by far the most expensive dwelling which he ever entered, except in the pursuit of plunder, and the number and salaries of those who minister to his wants form an item of cost to which his private life has no parallel. When the proper hour arrives, he is handed into his carriage, and set down at the stipendiary magistrates's. * * * And not only is the time of the magistrate employed in his affairs, but the aid of lawyers is called in—a class of men who have never been open to the reproach of undervaluing their services. Now, to all the expenses of a prosecution, which are paid for out of the public funds, such as the salaries of judges and recorders, counsel and attorneys, and the various officers of the court, and gratuities to witnesses, you must add the value of the time occupied by grand juries and petty juries in their public duties, avoiding, as you must do, if you desire to arrive at just results, the error to which I have before adverted, of assuming that when an expense is borne by individuals, and is not drawn from the public funds, it may be left altogether out of estimation. At length, after the drama of apprehension, trial, conviction, warning, and short imprisonment has been repeated, until it has lost all its interest either to actor or audience, the criminal arrives at the *ultimum supplicium*—transportation, a most expensive process, as I will proceed to show. A petition was presented to parliament by the magistrates of Liverpool, in the session of 1846. This petition set forth the cases of fourteen young offenders, impartially chosen, by which it appeared that these fourteen persons had been frequently committed to prison, none less than eight, one as many as twenty-three times. The cost of each of these fourteen youths, in apprehensions, trials, and imprisonments, was, on the average, £63, 8*s*. Not one of them was reformed, ten of them were transported, the cost of which, and their support in penal colonies, must be added. The cost of transportation in each case would be £28. That of control and residence in the colony, £54, at the least. So that each of the ten, who were transported, have cost the country, in those expenses which are chargeable on the public fund applicable to that purpose, a sum amounting to £145, 8*s*.! Such is the cost of a hardened offender, more than three times that of a reformed thief at Mettray, and almost five times as much as at Stretton-on-Dunsmore. And so great is even the *pecuniary* advantage of *conversion* over *perversion*. Surely here is matter for deep and humiliating reflection!

Rev. W. C. Osborn, Chaplain of Bath Jail:

When I became chaplain of the Bath jail in July, 1843, I determined to keep a most accurate account of all the children who might come under my care. During the first year there were about ninety-eight children sent to jail, of which number no less than fifty-five were first committals. During the following years I kept a strict account of these children, and the result has been of the most disheartening character. I can show you in detail the number of committals of each of those children during the six subsequent years, or even up to this time; and you will be surprised to be informed that within six years these children appeared in our jail no less than 216 times. I ventured to lay before a committee of the House of Commons a statement of the expense of these children. I will not trouble you with the details; but I may tell you that the result of the calculation was this, that having been in our jail for an aggregate period of twenty-seven and a-half years, having been committed 216 times, we find that in the six years subsequent to their first committals their cost to the public by imprisonment, prosecutions, plunder and destruction of property, by their maintenance in unions, (making a fair allowance for their supposed occasional and temporary periods of honest industry) can not be estimated at a sum much less than £6,063. They have consequently been living most expensively upon the country. In fact, they have cost us a sum of money that would have kept them at a boarding-school for the whole of the time. Aye; and having lost all this money, in what position are they at the expiration of the six years? Fifteen of them have been transported, five have died, five of them are living we know not how or where; but there are about thirty of them in a condition which must, sooner or later, issue in their being sent to one of our penal colonies. The children committed for the first time in the year ending July, 1844, (pursuing the same mode of calculation,) have in five years cost about £4,000; and those committed for the first time in 1845, have already cost about £2,000. Now, in the returns laid before Parliament, on the motion of Mr. Monckton Milnes, M. P., it appears that there were in 1848 and 1849, throughout the country, no less than 7,000 first committals of persons under seventeen years of age. But I will take them at 5,000, and assuming that Bath presents a fair average of cost, the amount lost to the country, or expended on those children alone, who are committed for the first time, is half a million per annum. That is a startling assertion certainly; but it is fully borne out by the statement as to the cost of juvenile crime, made by Mr. Serjeant Adams, Mr. Rushton, and other witnesses examined by the select committees of the two Houses of Parliament. In the position in which I am placed, I have opportunities of knowing the condition of these children; and although the system adopted at Bath is, I believe, as good as, if not better than, that adopted elsewhere, yet I must say, that our treatment of these poor destitute creatures has been, and is, most cruel, unjust, and unchristian. Just look for a moment at these children—many so young that they can scarcely reach the top of the bar with their heads—many so little that when in chapel they have to stand on the seats that they may be seen—children who are so unconscious of the degradation of being in jail, that they will make the zebra-dress they wear supply them with amusement; and the mode of punishing them is such as to harden, not to reform and instruct them. I can not help feeling that our conduct towards them is most unjustifiable, and I trust that God will not visit us with his anger for our treatment of these poor, ignorant, sinning, yet unconsciously guilty creatures. We have given them justice—justice without mercy—justice without scales—for there has been no measurement of the cruelty of our treatment of them. It has been calculated that there are 700 orphans committed to the prisons of our country every year; that there are 2,000 committed of those who are deprived of one of their parents; so that there are nearly 3,000 children every year, who are left without their natural guardians to guide them in the paths of duty, and instill into them the practice of virtue, incarcerated in our prisons. Look at the manner in which many of them become criminal. A man, hardened in crime, gathers these children round him, and makes them his agents; he sends them to beg, to pick pockets, and teaches them how to do it; such instances are known to me. He takes them to the very shops they are to rob, points out the shoes they are to steal, the gown-pieces they are to filch; and being less expert than the adult, they are discovered, and thrown into prison. Thus, while the older villain escapes, the child begins his criminal life, which we know too frequently ends in being sent out of the country as a transported felon. I might give you many cases of this kind; but I forbear. I would, however, refer for a moment to whipping in prison. It has been determined lately to introduce whipping as an element of punishment. I do not think it is attended with any good effects. It is no uncommon thing to hear these children say, "Oh, sir, whipping will do me no good; I know all about that; I have had enough of it before." They have been cuffed and knocked about their whole life long by drunken and brutal fathers and mothers, so to them it is no new thing; and I point to the state of our jails to show that this system of whipping in our prisons is not calculated to reform but to harden. If we look at some of the crimes—they are called crimes—of which these poor children are guilty, what do we see? They run away from the union workhouse—their home, they have no other—and what is the penalty? They are sent to jail. Are the children of the middle classes sent to jail when they run away from home or boarding-school? A few months ago some orphan children ran away from a union workhouse, and went to see the races; they were caught, brought back, and sent to prison for taking away the union clothes, which they had on them. At the same time the son of a governor of a union house ran away from home for the same purpose. And when he returned was he imprisoned? No! and we do not wish that he should; but why, then, should we punish by imprisonment in a felon's jail the fatherless child, while his destitute condition pleads for mercy and forgiveness at our hands? Their other offenses are acts of vagrancy and petty thefts; sleeping in out-houses or under hay-ricks, having no better places to lay themselves at night, when driven from their homes, or while wandering over the country. As to their robberies, they are, at least at first, of the most trifling kind, to which they are urged by hunger, temptation, and example. I would, before I conclude, refer for a moment to the condition of these children on being discharged from jail. I need not tell many of the gentlemen present that they are in a most deplorable state. They are often without friends, without a home, without one single soul to care for or to think of them. I have said without friends; but I say it with this exception, that their only friends are criminals, men who, standing at the prison door, and who have been within those doors, welcome them back to their old haunts of guilt, to pursue their evil courses afresh—to associate with them in lodging houses and similar places—to become learned in every thing that is evil, and in every thing that is destructive to society. No wonder that we have so much to complain of in the destruction of property, and in the expense of police, when we allow these children to go so long uncared for. No one will give them honest employment. A person who was once a prisoner in Bath jail, but who is now a respectable tradesman, wrote to me a few days ago to send him an errand boy. This man was himself a reformed criminal; but what did he say? "Don't send me a lad who has been in jail." Does not that speak to every one of us most strongly?—does it not show how lamentable is the condition of the unfortunate child—unfortunate enough to have ever entered the prison walls,—which circumstance even prevents a reformed criminal giving him employment?

Rev. Sydney Turner, Resident-chaplain of the Philanthropic Society's Farm School at Red Hill, near Reigate, Surrey, pointed out the hindrances to the effectual check of juvenile delinquency, in the want of proper industrial, correctional, and reformatory schools, and to the want of authority in magistrates to compel attendance at such schools.

To illustrate these hindrances, let me refer to the reformatory school with which I am connected, and with which I am best acquainted—the Philanthropic Farm School. The philanthropic society, by which this institution has been established, was formed upwards of sixty years ago, being the first association, as far as my inquiries go, for the reformation of criminal and vagrant children in England. Since its formation, in 1788, the society has had about 3,000 children under its care, out of which number something like two-thirds appear to have been reclaimed from criminal habits, and permanently improved and benefitted. The society used to carry on its operations in London. In 1848–9, however, we followed the example of Mettray, and removed our school to Red Hill, in the neighborhood of Reigate. Now, I may fairly claim for our Red Hill farm school that it has proved three important truths. First, that the reformation of young offenders is a very possible thing, if you seek it by the right means, viz.: by kindness, religious influence, and industrial occupation. Religious influence and teaching will not alone effect it; you must add the practical illustrations of *patience*, *gentleness*, and *kindness;* and even these together will not be thoroughly effective without the help of regular and healthful labor. It has proved, I say, that these agencies are at once indispensable, and tolerably certain to succeed. It has proved also, that with regard to the sort of labor you employ there is none so useful, as a means of moral discipline, as country labor—no reformation, in short, so effective as a free, open, FARM SCHOOL. The society's school in London did little as compared with what has been done since it was transferred to Red Hill, wall and gates dispensed with, and the boys subjected to the wholesome influence of open air, free discipline, country associations, and country habits. The philanthropic school has proved another thing, that the boys instructed in it are at no loss to find employment in the colonies. Nearly eighty young settlers have gone out from the farm school, thirty-seven last year, and thirty-eight this year. These lads have been welcomed kindly, and have found ready employment, and their conduct has been such that we have letters from gentlemen in the colonies, not to protest against the sending such lads out, but requesting us to send them some more. But in spite of all this, what is the feeling that continually depresses me and my fellow laborers in the work? We feel that we are carrying on an isolated work—that what we do is so little, compared with what is to be done, that our powers and resources are cramped; that we have no adequate means of detention and restraint, and that we have not sufficient pecuniary means to carry out our efforts on such a scale as to make them economical and largely useful. * * * But it may be asked, "What sort of detention do you want?" I might answer, that we want some such system of juvenile correction as they have in France, in Belgium, in Switzerland, Holland, and I may now add, in Piedmont also. Let us take it as a principle, that a boy under a certain age shall not be treated on the same footing as an adult; that his age, the neglect or vice of his parents, and the depraving circumstances of his childhood, shall be taken into account. That he shall be considered as a subject for reformatory training, rather than mere punishment. That he shall, therefore, at some early stage of his career, while yet open to better influences, be placed in a position to have the better feelings of his heart developed, and to become a voluntary agent—I say, *become a voluntary agent*, because while untaught, and while ruled by his criminal habits and associates, he is not a free agent; he is a slave, and we must free him. Let him then be sent to a correctional school—a school provided, let me add, by the government; for I know of no other way in which the object can be obtained. But the difficulty arises that such treatment of the young criminal would be, or would at least seem to be, more or less an encouragement to crime. Theoretically it may appear so, but practically this might be obviated. First, by separating the child from the parents by the power of detention, and sending it to a correctional school *at a considerable distance*. Secondly, by requiring the parents to contribute a certain amount in aid of the support of the child while detained in the school. Let this principle be recognized as an essential that we can not do without, and its practical execution enforced in every possible case; it will be most effectual answer to the objection to which I have referred. A third condition should be, that the discipline of the school should be really and effectually corrective, so as to afford no temptation to the boy to qualify himself for it.

Rev. John Clay, Chaplain of the County House of Correction at Preston, submitted some remarks on the question of compelling parents to pay for or contribute to the cost of training to habits of morality and industry the children whom they have allowed to become discreditable and dangerous to society.

Our juvenile criminals being drawn from a population (North Lancashire) among whom the means of employment are abundant, it will be no matter of surprise, though it will be of sorrow, that, in the great majority of instances, the young creatures who have been allowed to run into crime had parents who were well able to secure for them a suitable training to industrious and moral habits. For some months I have kept a particular account of the earnings of the families to which our juvenile offenders belong. Taking the last 50 committals as sufficient to lead us to a general conclusion on the subject, I may state that of these young victims of parental neglect,

6	belonged to families—most of which were *Irish*, passing through the neighborhood, or recently settled in it—earning a precarious and uncertain livelihood.
5	belonged to families earning from 10*s*. to 20*s*. weekly.
18	" " " " " 20*s*. to 40*s*. "
10	" " " " " 40*s*. to 60*s*. "
1	" " " " upwards of £3 "

Now, with scarcely an exception, these children had been completely neglected by their parents. Some of them—objects of the jealousy and cruelty of a step-father or step-mother—had had their homes made insupportable to them, or had been actually driven from them. A few examples may serve to give an idea of the elements of juvenile criminality in one part of the country. A boy of eleven says: "I came from Ireland with my parents two years ago; three older brothers get 11*s.* altogether in a factory; *four of us go about begging. My parents do no work at all.*" Another boy, aged fifteen, also Irish, says: "My mother wont live with my father, he drinks so; I live with my father in lodgings; he lets me do as I like." The earnings of this father, mother, and boy, are 26*s.* Two boys, brothers, aged, respectively, sixteen and eleven, were committed for the *third* time for "breaking and entering a warehouse." On the occasion of a previous committal of these children, I learned that their father had been in the habit of reading to them the demoralizing penny trash containing the lives of Turpin and Sheppard, and that these robbers had been held up to the deluded children as benefactors of the poor! When the young culprits returned home after the expiration of their imprisonment, they found a step-mother awaiting them. The father, who, on the trial of his children, had been severely and justly reprimanded by the court for his neglect of them—and who seems to have *intended* to take more care of them when they returned home—only exchanged his indifference to their moral welfare for brutal harshness. The younger child said to me, on his last committal: "My father licked me with a rope 'till the blood ran down my back, and my step-mother was watching!" So much more ready are such parents to strike than to teach! Here is a father—and there are thousands like him—who first corrupts his child's moral instincts, and then cruelly chastises him for the consequences of his own lessons! I must not omit to mention that this man's earnings were upwards of £3 weekly! Many more illustrations of the unchristian training to which multitudes of children are exposed might be given, but I will pass on to the conclusion which I believe myself warranted in drawing from the facts I have submitted—that parents ought to be compelled, by law, to defray part, or the whole, of the expense incurred in giving that religious and industrial education which they themselves have culpably neglected to give. It may be that, in many cases, the parents are unable to contribute any thing towards this expense; but this inability will often be found to arise from wilful idleness, drunkenness, or other vice; and when such causes of poverty are proved, I see no just principle which would be opposed to making parents of this character liable to penalty for their misconduct towards their children, and, as a consequence, *theirs* towards the community. I have, indeed, a strong conviction that if—in justifiable cases—the sins of the ignorant and erring child were visited upon the neglectful or vicious parent, such a proceeding would produce benefit, by reminding or warning fathers and mothers of the necessity of paying more attention to the duties incumbent on them. Whatever may be ultimately devised for fixing upon parents a more decided responsibility for their children's conduct, it is clear—proved by an overpowering mass of distressing evidence—that measures must be taken to rescue the perishing and dangerous classes of children from their present condition—for their own sakes—and for the sake of the general safety. Such measures will doubtless involve considerable expense. I know well that I now speak in the presence of those who require these measures to be taken from the best and highest motives—who are actuated by the most enlightened views and by the largest charity—who remember that the work they have undertaken is in humble and faithful obedience to One who "*is not willing that one of these little ones should perish;*" but I know, also, that the success of the work will depend, in a very great degree, upon obtaining the assent of persons who may desire to see economical advantages in the courses proposed. Well, what would it cost, on the one hand, to give two or three years' moral and industrial training to a neglected child, who would otherwise enter upon a course of life destructive to himself and dangerous to society? Upon the Red Hill plan, which, under the zealous and untiring care of Mr. Turner, has been crowned with such happy results, it would cost—say for three years—£75. Upon the Aberdeen plan, which seems to me admirably adapted to the circumstances of a large town, and respecting which we shall hear more fully from one of its great founders—the cost for three years would not exceed £15 or £20. But, on the other hand, what would it cost the community to permit such a child to pursue its course through a sea of crime, until it is landed in one of our penal colonies? I will endeavor to show this cost; and, in order to avoid any liability to exaggerate, I take my data, as far as practicable, from official documents. By the last report (15th,) of Captain Williams, inspector of prisons for the home district, it appears that the entire number of persons sentenced to transportation in 1849 was about 3,100. In the inspector's elaborate and valuable tables the *ages* of the transport convicts are not given, and I therefore look to the very instructive criminal statistics published by Captain Willis, the chief constable of Manchester, and to the details which are given in the Liverpool calendars; and assuming that the ages of transports, generally, are represented in those returns, it would appear that of the 3,100 I have mentioned, 43 per cent. are under twenty-one years old—1,333; 45 per cent. are between twenty-one and thirty years of age—1,395; and 12 per cent., or 372, are above thirty years of age. Now, it is not taking too much for granted to say that criminals, sentenced to transportation before they reach thirty-one years of age, have commenced their criminal career at a time of life when they should have been learning a better way. But society has "*ignored*" their very existence. Let us see what society pays for its indifference. Offenders, generally, are not sentenced to transportation until they have appeared at the bar four or five times. I will, therefore, suppose the expense of between three and four prosecutions, at assizes or sessions, to be £50. The average imprisonment of each offender *before* transportation may be taken at three years, and the expense of it at £65; three years' probation in separate confinement, at Parkhurst, or public works, £50; removal to the colonies, &c., &c., £35; total, £200. So that when 3,000 sentences of transportation are passed in a year, we may consider them tantamount to a notification to the public that a last installment of a sum exceeding half a million sterling is about to be called for! To be as precise as the nature of this inquiry will allow, the 2,728 convicts under thirty-one years of age, to whom I have already alluded as having run the career of juvenile criminality, represent a cost *waste* of £545,600! But let it be remembered that the felony of this kingdom—and whether juvenile or adult, it belongs to this question to consider the fact—is not maintained, while at large, for nothing. Having investigated to a considerable extent, the rates of income derived by thieves from their practices, and having obtained estimates of the same thing from intelligent and experienced convicts themselves, I believe myself to be within the real truth, when I assume such income to be more than £100 a-year for each thief! Well, then, allowing only two years' full practice to one of the dangerous class previous to his sentence of transportation, I do not know how the conclusion can be escaped that, in one way or another, the public—the easy, indifferent, callous public—has been, and is mulcted to the amount of more than a million sterling, by, and on account of its criminals annually transported! But its criminals who are not transported! still living on their dishonest gains, or in our costly prisons! We must not forget them in our calculations of the cost of crime, though it will be sufficient for my present purpose merely to refer to them, and to say that I am convinced that their cost to the community *in* and OUT of prison amounts annually to some millions! This assertion may be somewhat startling; I will only state one fact in support of it. Some years ago a committee of inquiry into the annual depredations of the Liverpool thieves, stated the amount of those depredations at ***seven hundred thousand pounds!*** Need more be said on the economical part of this momentous question? Need I ask you to balance between the charge of training the young outcasts of the country to godly and industrious habits, and the waste of money, time, and SOULS, consequent upon our neglect of an undeniable Christian duty? * * * To show the good effect of prison discipline on juveniles, I can offer the direct testimony of gentlemen filling the posts of superintendents to our county police, to show the same thing. My last report, which contains full details of these police returns, is that for 1848—according to which, it appears that of sixty-three young offenders, under twenty-one years old, who had returned to their homes after discharge from prison—eleven could not be found, ten were no better, three were improved, and *thirty-nine were more or less reformed*. I almost fear that I draw upon your credulity in making this statement; but believe me that the law of "kindness," so eloquently enforced by the learned recorder of Ipswich, can do, by the Divine blessing, much good even in a prison. It was not that these children stood most in need of reading and writing, of learning their catechism, of committing to memory chapters from the Holy Scriptures—they stood most in need of what had never yet approached them—of something to touch, soften, and humanize their hearts and desires. I believed that, in almost every instance, these misled creatures had never in their lives heard words or tones of kindness or affection; that they never had dared to suppose that any one cared for them, or desired, for their own sakes, that they should learn to speak and do things that are right. I endeavored to show them their mistake—that there were people who felt for them, who pitied them, who loved them; who earnestly desired to promote their happiness both here and hereafter. These endeavors were not unsuccessful; and I found that as the heart softened and opened, so the mind expanded; and the reading and scriptural teaching, which, otherwise, would have been mechanical and irksome, were received with eager thankfulness, as something conducive to the great object of repentance and amendment.

Rev. T. Carter, Chaplain of the Liverpool Jail, spoke in reference to the inadequacy of the existing system of prison discipline to secure the reformation of juvenile criminals, and the present cost to society for the conviction and punishment of this class.

Liverpool has one of the largest jails in the kingdom. The commitments during last year were upwards of 9,500. Of that number, upwards of 1,100 were juvenile offenders, under sixteen years of age; and of these the proportion of recommitments amounted to more than 70 per cent. This one fact must give you some idea of the inefficiency—the utter uselessness—of such institutions as the Liverpool jail for the reformation of criminals. Indeed—and I say it advisedly—if it had been the object in Liverpool to devise a scheme for the promotion rather than the prevention of juvenile crime, no contrivance could have been hit upon better calculated to accomplish that object than the Liverpool jail. And yet that jail has been held up as one of the best regulated in the kingdom, under the old system; and that I believe with justice; and if these are the results of one of the best regulated, I leave you to judge what must be the case with others, not so well conducted. Now, I must invite your attention to the manner in which these juveniles are treated. The course followed with them is to send them from the police court to the jail in the prison van, wherein they are mixed with offenders of all classes and ages. On arriving there, they are first taken into the reception room, which, I may state, on the female side has six compartments or cells opening out from it—three on each side; and sometimes there are as many as five persons crammed into these cells, which, when designed and built under the direction of Howard, were intended to hold only one. In these cells, girls are mixed with adults, and remain often from four o'clock in the afternoon until two next day, when they go before the surgeon, in order to satisfy him that they have no disease which shall disqualify them from mixing with other persons. When they have passed that muster, as I may term it, the juvenile offenders are sent into what is called the school class. In this class, there have been as many as sixty girls under sixteen years of age; and yet there are but twelve rooms or cells for them to sleep in, and here they are doomed to remain from half past seven in the afternoon until seven o'clock in the morning in winter, so that the inmates pass the whole of that interval in a situation where they can not possibly be under the control or supervision of the officers, and are left to unrestricted conversation, which you can readily imagine to be of such a character as not to tend to their edification. Now, it so happens, that with the best intentions on the part of the matron and the female warders, who have the charge of them, it is quite impossible to prevent the mixing of the unsophisticated with experienced thieves. There are many instances in which the same cell has contained five girls, one of whom has been under sentence of transportation—two others in jail, and convicted of felony several times before—while the remaining two were novices in guilt, and young in the career of vice. Now, what must be the result of such a state of association? It is right that the criminal should be reformed because I hold that the object of improvement is not merely the punishment, but the reformation of the offender. And yet the very first step we take in Liverpool, with a view to that object, is to mix up children of seven or eight years of age—for we have one now waiting for trial who is not eight years old—with persons who have been for a long period hardened in a career of vice. When I tell you that I have one of my own children of the same age, I need not assure you that I never look on one of those poor little saplings without feelings of the deepest commiseration. These children are or have been, as dear to their parents, as mine are to me, and I feel that when they are taken into jail for the purpose of punishing their crimes and reforming them, you have no right—I have no right—the country has no right—to put these unfortunate little ones in such a position as must inevitably issue in their utter depravation. Such, then, is the result on the *female* side of the prison; on the *male* side matters are no better. * * * What, I would ask, can it be but ruinous and disastrous, as our jail returns exhibit? I have already mentioned the proportion of recommitments; and I can illustrate, from my own inquiries, the after careers of some of these offenders. I take a page, then, at random from the school register of four years ago, and I find that of the thirty whose names are upon that page—not selected cases, but taken in the order in which they came to jail—eighteen have been transported; two are now in jail, having been frequently recommitted in the mean time; one out of the thirty is in employment; one has emigrated; two have died, one immediately after being discharged, the other shot in the streets during a public disturbance; leaving six, out of the thirty, whose history I have not been able to trace, but who, in all probability, have quitted the town and neighborhood of Liverpool, to visit Birmingham or Manchester, or some other large town. I find, also, that the average number of times in jail of these thirty is eight and a half; the average time spent by them in jail is fifteen months; the cost to the *borough of Liverpool*, on the average, is £32, 15*s*.; while the further cost of transportation of those eighteen averages £48; the *gross* average expense of each of these *thirty* criminals being £62, 7*s*.

The cost of every young criminal to Liverpool is illustrated in a memorial of the magistrates to Parliament, asking for a reformatory school, in the following statement:—That the costs of apprehension, maintenance, prosecution, and punishment, was of

No. 1	£129	5	6¼	No. 8	£72	1	4½
No. 2	71	2	10½	No. 9	52	9	7¼
No. 3	74	1	10½	No. 10	64	18	9¼
No. 4	71	13	1	No. 11	28	10	4½
No. 5	47	9	3	No. 12	39	8	10½
No. 6	64	6	6¼	No. 13	26	10	10
No. 7	99	2	5½	No. 14	47	7	7½
And thus these offenders cost the public					£888	9	1

It thus appears that the average cost of these fourteen prisoners was about £63, 8*s*.; while I have shown that the average cost of thirty boys, who were not selected, bear in mind, as the worst cases; not taken at random, but in the order of their commitments, was £62, 7*s*.; showing almost coincident results. And here I must inform you that I have not taken into account the cost of maintenance in the colonies, and the loss of property by the community. If I did it would add immensely to the calculations I have laid before you. And yet I may say, that in Liverpool jail, which was referred to by the late excellent inspector of prisons, Mr. Hill, as one of the cheapest in expenditure in the kingdom, the average cost per head of the prisoners is only £12, whereas in many other jails it is £15, and in some nearly double. But great as is the expense of juvenile crime, the charge entailed upon us must not be estimated solely by the expense incurred on account of the offenders whilst they remain in that category. After they reach the age of seventeen or eighteen, they pass out of the class of juvenile offenders, and become adults, their habits of crime becoming more fully developed, and the expense, of course, being greatly increased. I find that, taking forty-two individuals—male adults—at this moment in Liverpool jail, who were first received there as juvenile thieves, the aggregate commitments amount to 401, or 9½ times each on the average. The average career in crime was five years and four months. These are all known thieves, and their cases are looked on (humanly speaking) as entirely hopeless. Under present circumstances the course pursued can only have a corrupting and vitiating effect upon those who have not yet arrived at years of maturity. Of the forty-two instances to which I have referred, there are six under sentence of transportation. One first commenced his career of crime at the age of nine years, and has been nineteen times in jail; and when I mention that, I need not bring forward any further proofs of the uselessness of all attempts at reformation, so long as there is not a radical change in the present vicious arrangements. There is another of twenty years of age, who, since being sentenced to transportation, has made a violent and determined attempt on the life of one of the officers of the prison. I will show the same results with the females. Out of twenty-six females, all of whom commenced as juveniles, I find that twenty-five have been in jail, on the average, seven times each; the other I do not think it fair or proper to bring forward as an average example, because she has been fifty-seven times in jail. The average time each is known to spend in jail is five years. Now, I think I have established my position that the Liverpool jail, although singled out for special condemnation by the inspector of prisons, is the most effectual institution that can be devised for transmitting and propagating crime. Such is the evil, and such its extent. What can we look to as its remedy?

Rev. Francis Bishop, Minister of the Liverpool Domestic Mission Society, submitted some remarks, which pointed out the preliminary training school for the young criminals of Liverpool.

In four of the best streets, occupied by the honest and industrious working classes in Liverpool, there are 411 children between the ages of five and fourteen. Of that number 206 go to a day school; 29 to evening ragged schools; and 176 go to no school at all. Now, if we look at those streets which supply the inmates of the prisons—the worst class of streets—we find most disheartening results. An inquiry instituted about a year ago gave the following statement, which is equally applicable to the present state of matters. In Brick street, there were 436 children, between five and fourteen years of age, and of these only 51 went to school—some of them only to an *evening* school—leaving 385 who went to no school whatever. In Crosby street, which was referred to by the reverend gentleman who last addressed you, there were 484 children, between the ages of five and fourteen, only 47 of whom went to school, leaving 437 who received no education at all. In another of this class of streets, which is very populous, an inquiry was made yesterday morning. The street to which I refer is called New Bird street, and it was intended to have ascertained the condition of the whole of the inhabitants as regards education; but it was found that the time was too short, and accordingly only the first three courts were taken—not selected—but taken in order. Well; it was found that there were 119 children between the ages of five and fourteen; and only 3 out of that number went to school. Including the *front* houses adjoining these courts, we found that there were 163 children between the ages I have mentioned; and of that number 16 went to a day school; 4 to an evening ragged school; and no less than 143 to no school at all. Now, these are very startling facts, and I mention them merely to afford you a fair specimen of the educational condition of the streets of Liverpool in which the classes whose welfare we are met to promote, reside; and although I believe that the juvenile population of Liverpool is somewhat worse than that of great towns generally, yet I am afraid that the condition of Birmingham, Manchester, and London, is not greatly superior in this respect. * * * My opinion is that we shall never be able to reach this class of juvenile offenders so as to operate effectually in diminishing their numbers, until we make the parents feel, and that through the pocket. They must be made to understand, by being required to contribute to the maintenance of their children, when they come within the grasp of the law, that they can not throw off with impunity the sacred obligations which the Almighty has imposed on every parent. I will say no more than that compulsory attendance must also be enforced on the vagrant class—that class who are on the high road to crime—by some such mode as that adopted in Aberdeen.

Mr. William Locke, Honorary Secretary to the London Ragged School Union, remarked:

It is now about eight years since a few friends in London joined me in the establishment of the ragged school union; but since then we have managed to increase the number of schools, in London alone, from sixteen to one hundred and two. We have now about fifteen thousand children, who are being taught in these schools; above one hundred and sixty paid teachers; and above one thousand three hundred teachers who give voluntary assistance. Now, although I have no wish to shrink from the work, yet I have come here to declare that we are not equal—depending as we do upon voluntary contributions alone—to the great task we have undertaken. It is true that in some of our schools we have the ragged now clothed, the dirty become clean, and the riotous made orderly, so that many who visit us can not see the difference between these and any other schools. These desirable results are brought about by collateral cases, such as the clothing clubs, the industrial classes, the mothers' associations, and kindred institutions, which come in with powerful assistance to improve the habits, appearance, and nature of the children. But still with all that aid, we are unable to cope with the great evil, or to put a check upon juvenile crime; and we feel that still there is a very large class we make little improvement upon. This class consists of vagrants, mendicants, and petty thieves, who require to be fed before they will be taught, and for whom more industrial, refuge, or feeding schools are required than our funds can sustain. There is, in London, a very large number of children coming under that category. Lord Ashley, in the House of Commons, some years ago, said there were 30,000 of them; but my opinion, at the time, was that the number was much larger. I believe that there can not be less than 200,000 of them in the entire country, and from this class, I am quite sure, come nearly all the juvenile criminals in our prisons. They are the very seed plot of crime. Now, how are we to meet this mass of vice and wretchedness? Many of them are starving in the streets; many of them are indeed "perishing for lack of knowledge as well as feed." In three points of view this great class have been considered, viz.:—as expensive—as dangerous—and as perishing; but there is another point arising from these; they are greatly to be pitied. With regard to the expense, no one can doubt but that it is excessive, not only as respects the property they steal, but in their apprehension, their trial, their maintenance in prison, and their transportation. We have information from some of these boys, who live by thieving, of the great sums of money they expend in the course of the year, that would astonish you all, filched from the pockets, or houses and shops, of the industrious classes. They are dangerous, with regard to society, in disturbing the peace and morality of the neighborhood where they dwell; but, in another sense, they are dangerous, viz.: in their evil example thus shown to the better class of children, and in innoculating others with their vicious habits. But they are also perishing, and the objects of our deep commiseration. They are without education or instruction of any kind; they are ignorant of all good; they are criminal, in many cases, from dire necessity, and "more sinned against than sinning." They are not, therefore, to be visited with the same kind of punishment we inflict upon adult criminals. Nay, I hold it to be now an acknowledged principle, that we should not treat as criminals those children who had no sense of right and wrong—and I very much doubt if we have any just right to punish children for breaking laws with which we have never made them acquainted, or for violating duties which we have never taught them to respect. Look for a moment at their pitiful and forlorn condition; in one night Lord Shaftesbury found no less than thirty-five of these poor children sleeping—huddled together under the dry arches by Field Lane, Smithfield. Night after night fancy these boys—or just picture to yourselves one of them herding there unwashed, unfed, uncared for by the thousands around—to snatch a weary sleep; and coming out from his hard, damp, comfortless bed in the morning—it may be in a cold, dull, winter's day—without friends, without a home, without a single soul in all the wide world to care for or to guide him. How, I ask, is it possible for such a lad, starving for bread, to escape the commission of crime? These children, without character and without any employment, must be vagrants or thieves in order to live—and therefore are they to be deeply commiserated.

Some of these very boys we have succeeded in rescuing. Thank God for it. From one of them (I mean one of those found in Field Lane) who emigrated, we have a letter, stating that he is earning 35*s.* a week as a printer in Melbourne, (a most gratifying fact,) and thanking us most heartily for all that has been done for him. And will any body tell me that these children have not hearts, and can not be reformed? I could tell of cases, not by tens but by hundreds, in which boys and girls, taken out of the mire and the gutter—the very sweepings of the streets—as it were, have become honest and useful members of society. Out of some 400 boys whom we have sent to the colonies from various schools, we have hardly heard of a single return to criminal practices; but on the contrary, we find that in almost every case they are doing well, and earning an honest livelihood. * * * As regards those children we can not reach—those who need to be fed, and even lodged, ere they can be taught—how can we expect to gather fruit from thistles, or to draw pure water from a muddy source? We may endeavor to reform them after falling into crime, and it is our duty; but the chances are that we shall only be partially successful. Would it not be far better to prevent them falling into crime at all? It was truly and eloquently said by Dr. Guthrie, that it is a beautiful sight to see the life-boat dashing through the waves to save the shipwrecked mariners; but much more beautiful was it to behold the lighthouse beacon which might prevent the wreck altogether. I perfectly agree with the committee on juvenile crime of the county of Aberdeen, a short passage from whose report I beg leave to read. They assert:

"That the present mode of dealing with juvenile offenders has not attained the end desired; that neglected outcasts, for whom neither the funds of the public, nor the generosity of private individuals, have cared, have been allowed to grow up in the midst of a Christian people, without any instruction in the first principles of religion and even morality, and are not, at least in the first instance, the legitimate objects of vindictive punishment—that it is just and right, before inflicting punishment, and branding for life with the character of a felon, to give the outcast child a chance of improvement—to put clearly before him the path of duty; and if after this training, he wilfully depart from it, then society has done its duty by him; and if he incur merited chastisement, he must, in his heart, acknowledge that he has deserved it."

This being the case, it strikes me that the work will never be thoroughly done by private benevolence. A great public good should be the work of the public. When I first took up the subject of ragged schools, they were merely evening schools, for gathering in from the streets outcast, neglected children. Such I still consider to be the genuine ragged school. But now, when we find it necessary for a large class to be fed, and clothed, and lodged, and cared for, and sent abroad, &c., &c., I am inclined to say I can not undertake all this. The parish or government must help us; and it is their duty, on the score of economy, philanthropy, and self-preservation, to do so.

A. Thompson, Esq., Chairman of the Aberdeen County Prison Board, made a short statement of the Industrial Schools in Aberdeen, established mainly at the suggestion, and by the efforts of Mr. Sheriff Watson.

We have now had an experience of ten years, the first of our schools having been established in October, 1841. We commenced that school with about twenty boys, and we gradually increased the number to seventy or eighty, which is about the utmost limit our experience leads us to believe an industrial school ever ought to be allowed to attain. Two years afterwards we established a small school for girls; that school has since been divided into two, and in each of these there are now from sixty to seventy scholars. But we found that, although we were able to accomplish a certain amount of good in the city of Aberdeen, still we had not by any means attained all the good we desired. We found the streets infested by little vagrants and beggars ready to commit all sorts of annoying depredations. We therefore resolved to avail ourselves of a local act of Parliament, by which it was provided that begging and vagrancy were crimes punishable by the magistrates. You will be perhaps surprised to learn that in Scotland we have no vagrant act, and that vagrancy is not an offense there which, of itself, and alone, can be punished, as in England—but in the city of Aberdeen this power is possessed by the magistrates, under the provision of the local police act, and they gave the aid of their authority to the gentlemen who wished to extend the operation of the industrial schools to a class of children still lower in the social scale than those who were already in attendance. Accordingly, orders were given on a certain day in the year 1845, to the police, to capture every little vagrant boy or girl whom they might find in the streets, and in the course of two hours seventy-five were collected—and if you can conceive seventy-five dirty ragged little children, trained up in all sorts of vice and wickedness, and unaccustomed to any sort of restraint, collected together in our small apartment, you may form some idea of the scene of confusion and uproar which ensued. The whole of the first day was spent in endeavoring to bring them into something like order, and in furnishing them with the only thing they seemed to appreciate, viz.: three good substantial meals. When dismissed in the evening, they were informed that they might return the next day or not just as they pleased, but if they did not come back they would not be allowed to beg in the streets. Next morning, to the delight of all interested, almost the whole of them returned, and the system has been pursued from that day to this. When we begun this plan there were in Aberdeen 280 children known to the police, who lived constantly by begging and petty thefts. For the last seven or eight years scarcely one had been seen, cases do occasionally occur, but they are very rare. We have almost completely succeeded in extirpating the race of juvenile beggars in Aberdeen.

The next step in the history of our experience is perhaps the most interesting of all. Our establishment at first, of the boys' and girls' school, certainly cleared the streets of one part of the juvenile delinquents, but neither the worst nor the most dangerous class. Those whom we caught on the second occasion were those training up manifestly to fill our prison cells. Now what are the results as to them? The number of boys and girls in the schools last described are generally about 100—of those who have been at this school, seventy-one have since we opened been placed in situations where they are now maintaining themselves by their own honest industry: and what is perhaps still more satisfactory, of the whole 171 who have passed, or are now passing through our hands, not one individual has been taken up by the police for any offense great or small.

When the schools were first started—like many other new and untried schemes—they met with considerable opposition, but a few resolute friends stood by them. The first success was not very obvious, and after they had been opened about two years the funds fell off, and we experienced that "excruciating agony," want of money, which was referred to by one of the gentlemen who has preceded me, and, in consequence, the number of children in the schools was reduced to the lowest possible point. But by this time the scheme had begun to take some little hold of the public mind, and I am rejoiced to tell you that the working classes of Aberdeen came forward and expressed an earnest desire that the schools should not be given up, but that if possible they should be carried on and extended. They offered to raise subscriptions among themselves, and subscription papers were accordingly carried round, both among the higher and among the lower classes, and I have to say, that of the whole amount contributed, two-thirds came from the hard earnings of the working men and the working women of Aberdeen. By this most happy and timely addition to the funds we were enabled to get over the difficulties which threatened us, and we have been just able to keep moving ever since. The total number of children at all the schools is somewhere about four hundred.

There are still two or three more statistical facts which I wish to place before the meeting. We were much annoyed in the county of Aberdeen by the number of juvenile vagrants who came out from the city. We employed the rural police to prepare returns to see what effect the juvenile schools were producing. The first return was not thought of until the year 1845. We were then informed that in that year (1845) the rural police apprehended 62 little children, or juvenile vagrants, who were traveling alone throughout the county, begging or stealing on their own account. In the year 1846, the number was reduced to 14; in 1847 it was further reduced to 6; in 1848 the number was again 6; in 1849 it was reduced to 1; and in 1850 it rose again to 2! so that we have pretty thoroughly disposed of that class of offenders.

It is a practice with us, as it is I believe in England, for women to go out begging through the country, attended by children, sometimes their own, and sometimes hired, with the sole end and object of exciting compassion, and obtaining additional alms. In 1841 the rural police stopped in the county of Aberdeen 1,203 of these persons. That number was gradually reduced year by year, until, in 1850, there were only 387—less than a third of the number we had nine years before.

There is another test which, with your permission, I shall furnish you. In the year 1841, before the schools were opened in Aberdeen, the juvenile commitments to the Aberdeen prison amounted to 61. In the year 1850, the number was reduced to 14. But I can give you a still more striking evidence of the value of these schools. In 1845 we were obliged, in a great measure, to close the doors of our schools, for the reasons which I have already mentioned. I have stated that in 1841 there were 61 juvenile delinquents; in 1842 the number was reduced to 30; and in 1843, when the schools were partly closed, the number rose again to 63. Now here, I think, is correct evidence of how the schools are working. Open the schools, and keep the children in regular attendance, and the juvenile vagrants disappear; juvenile crime is diminished—shut the doors, and they immediately reappear, flourish, and increase.

We have, in addition to our proper schools, what we term a child's asylum, and this is an essential part of the system. It is a place to which any child found wandering or deserted is conveyed in a friendly manner by the police. It is attached to the House of Refuge, and the directors of that establishment give every possible facility for superintending the management of the children. The children are kept here until the committee meet. Formerly they met every day, but now it is not necessary to do so; they are summoned when required. Each case is investigated most minutely; if it appears that the parents are able to take charge of the children, or that they ought to do so, they are sent for and remonstrated with, and induced, if possible, to do their duty. If it appears that they have a claim upon any parish, then a correspondence takes place between the committee and these parochial authorities, and the child is sent to its parish; but in the greater number of cases the child is placed at once in one of our industrial schools. The object of this minute scrutiny is to prevent improper persons getting upon our very limited funds. We wish to keep these funds sacred for the persons who are really suitable objects, and who belong to the city. In all our schools the system is the same. As a general rule, the children learn about four hours' lessons in the day, four to five hours' work, one to one and a half hours' play, and three good substantial meals. Much has been said to-day, and the importance of the question can not be denied, as to the policy of *compelling* the children to attend these schools. Hitherto our experience has shown us that no compulsion is necessary beyond the attraction of the three substantial meals. Most of them were previously unaccustomed to a regular supply of wholesome food; they soon learn its value, and require no other inducement to return daily to their work and lessons; and I venture to say that the attendance of these poor children, the very outcasts of society, at these schools, is more regular than among schools of a higher class. With regard to time, I may state that they come in summer at seven and in winter at eight o'clock in the morning; there is then an hour or an hour and a half's religious and miscellaneous instruction, such as geography, facts in natural history, and occasionally a singing lesson. The children then spend a short time in play, and afterwards breakfast. From ten to two they work. At two o'clock they dine, and after some recreation they work from three to four, and from four to seven they have lessons suited to their different ages, and at seven they have a plain substantial supper, and a short religious exercise follows; after which the whole are dismissed to their homes. Now this plan of sending them back to their homes is a point upon which we have had many anxious consultations. The propriety of allowing them to return to their degraded and debased parents was questioned by many as being calculated to destroy the moral influence which the school exercised over them. But our experience tends to show that the reverse is the case. I frankly admit that it is a doubtful question, and many exceptional cases may occur: but we know also instances in which the saving knowledge of truth obtained at school has been communicated to the outcast parents through the little child. We think, then, that we have been successful in Aberdeen to a great extent, and, in deed, even beyond the extent we hoped to obtain when these schools were first established. The two great principles which we have endeavored to act upon are these—to show the children from the first that we really and truly love them, and desire their good, and that all our exertions, whether in the way of teaching, or feeding, or remonstrating with them against evil conduct, are solely and only with the desire of doing them good, and that lesson the children themselves seem to have learned. But above and beyond this, we have sought to base our every step upon God's revealed word. * * * We have been told truly to-day of the expense the public are put to in keeping the youthful convict in prison. If I remember aright, the lowest estimate was £18 or £20 a year. That is precisely our own experience in Scotland. But when we get hold of these children, and instead of sending them to prison, bring them to our industrial schools, we find the whole expense of teaching and feeding them is under £5 a year. And of that expense, on an average, about £1, 5*s.* is saved to the school by the work of the children. So that we can bring up children—so far as man can do it—honestly, and industriously, and religiously, at an expense of £3, 15*s.* per annum. Whereas, if you send them to the poor-house, they cost about £10 per annum each with us, and I believe a larger sum in this country. If they are sent to prison, we know that the expense is from £18 to £25; and if we send them upon the distant voyage to Australia, we know that the cost altogether amounts to a sum not much, if at all, under £300 sterling. Upon an average of cases, we find that five years' training in the industrial schools is sufficient to make the child a useful member of society; and suppose the expense to amount to £5 per annum, we have then the choice of making one of these children an honest and virtuous member of society for £25, or of sending him ultimately into a penal settlement, at a cost, including his previous training in crime, of about £300. It appears to me that there can be little choice to a wise man in the matter. Sir, I have often thought, when I have passed a little ragged urchin in the street, one of the numerous class who are being trained up to a life of crime and misery, "My poor little fellow, you are just a bill of exchange for two or three hundred pounds sterling, drawn upon the public of Great Britain, and the last farthing of that sum you will certainly cause us to pay before your career is ended." Much has been said to day of the expense of our prisons, but that is, after all, trifling compared with the enormous expense, and the serious loss the country is put to, by the depredations these persons commit. A single instance was alluded to, in which a large amount of plunder was carried off; and you yourself, Mr. Chairman, alluded to a case that had occurred in your own family. But it is not the plunder from the rich, and the quantity of plate, jewelry, and money, that is so taken, that creates the greatest amount of inconvenience; but it is the extreme suffering caused to the working and industrious classes by having their hard-earned property taken from them. If you look at the records of trials and convictions before judges, and in police offices, you will find that a large number of cases occur in which the property is stolen from this class. Many of them, too, are afraid to appear to prosecute, and no small part of those crimes are committed against the poorer classes of society, which never appear at all.

Rev. H. Townsend Powell, Chairman of the Warwick County Asylum, (who has given, without fee or reward, his time, attention, and talent, to the institution for twenty-six years,) gave the following account of the earliest reformatory institution of England, which is situated at Stretton-on-Dunsmore in the county of Warwickshire:

The institution commenced its operations in 1818, and in 1827 it was clearly ascertained that up to that period forty-eight per cent. of the whole number who had been subjected to the experiment had been permanently reformed. It was also made clear that a saving had been effected in the county expenditure, resulting from the diminished number of prosecutions, the cost of which was charged on the county rates. Under the second master, the proportion of reformations was 58 per cent. of those who had quitted the institution. Under the present master, it has risen to 64 per cent; and, if we take the latter part of his time only, since the last improvement in management has been introduced, it has risen to 68 per cent.

The system adopted is a system of kindness and persuasion, blended, nevertheless, with salutary coercion and correction. * * * This is effected by daily setting before him the comforts of a well-ordered family—by occupying and interesting his mind—by sending him on little embassies of confidence, and exciting in him a feeling of respect for himself and his own character, and inducing him to participate in that *esprit du corps* which regards the honor of the institution, of which he is a member, as if it were his own. * * * It is acknowledged by all that "evil communications corrupt good manners;" and therefore all are anxious to separate uncontaminated juveniles from old offenders; but it is not so generally acknowledged that association is no less availing for the propagation of good than evil. * * * I adopted the conclusion that *association is no less availing for the purpose of reformation than it is for the purpose of contamination*, and that the difference is this: where the preponderating moral influence is in favor of evil, there evil will increase: on the contrary, where the preponderating moral influence is in favor of virtue and religion, there virtue and religion will flourish and abound. This principle has been invariably borne in mind in conducting the institution at Stretton-on-Dunsmore, and I can not help thinking that if it were in a more favorable locality, and a power of detention, but without bars, and gates, and walls, were given us by law, we should be able to exhibit a yet more favorable result than any which has yet appeared. But, if we are to carry on our experiment on a larger scale, I would still urge the adoption of the suggestion contained in the memoir of 1827, viz.: that the institution should consist of one or more establishments, under the same general surveillance, but varying in strictness of discipline; so that the return of the criminal to honesty, should be accomplished by a coresponding return of liberty.

In pursuing this subject, we will introduce a particular account of the organization and management of several of the institutions referred to in the foregoing discussion, and will begin with the Rauhen-Hause at Horn, near Hamburgh, which may be regarded as the pioneer and model of all the others.

REFORM SCHOOL OF THE RAUHEN-HAUS,

AT

HORN, NEAR HAMBURG.

The Redemption Institute, or Rauhen-Haus, at Horn, four or five miles out of the city of Hamburg, was established by an association of benevolent individuals, aided by a legacy of Mr. Gercken, in 1833, for the reception of abandoned children of the very lowest class. From the beginning it has been conducted by Mr. T. H. Wichern who has made it the mission of his life, to reclaim this class from habits of idleness, vagrancy, and crime, by making them feel the blessing of a Christian and domestic life, and the pleasure of earning their own bread, and of doing good to others, by their own industry. His first step was to procure a plain dwelling, and to remove every thing from without or within which gave it the appearance of a place of punishment or correction; and in this house he has resided with his own family. Into the bosom of his own family he received three boys of the worst description, and in the course of a few months, nine others of the same stamp, making them feel *at home*, and yet with full liberty to go away if they wished, but recognized by him, and his wife, and his sister, as members of the same household, and fellow-laborers in the garden and the farm. By forgetting or forgiving the past, and encouraging every effort on the part of these depraved outcasts of society, to form better manners and habits, by addressing them always in the look and tone of heartfelt interest in their welfare, by patient and long suffering forbearance with their short comings, by touching exhibitions, at appropriate times, of the character and teachings of Christ, by regular instruction in the branches of an elementary education, by alternate recreation and employment, of which they receive the return not only in their own comfortable lodging and support, but in small but constantly accumulating savings, Mr. Wichern succeeded in working remarkable changes in the character of a large majority of all who became inmates of his family.

By degrees the establishment has been extended from a single house to nine, on the original plan of not increasing the size of each, so to impair its domestic character, and to make each family to some extent an independent community, having its own house—father and mother, its own garden, table, fireside, and family worship; and yet all the families uniting in larger meetings and operations, as neighbors and a community, and all looking to Mr. Wichern as the patriarch of the whole establishment. The following account of the institution is taken from the Report of M. Ducpetiaux, inspector general of prisons to the minister of justice, preparatory to the organization of the reform school of Belgium.

The reform school of the Rauhen-Haus, at Horn, near Hamburg, was founded in 1833, by a society of charitable persons, and by the aid of private contributions, for the purpose of receiving and reforming vicious and unfortunately situated children. Commenced in a modest building roofed with thatch, from which it has taken its name, it now occupies about twenty-five acres of ground, upon which have been built, as they have been needed, a dozen houses, more or less spacious, each one of which has its proper destination. These houses are,

1. The old thatched house, the cradle of the institution, serving for the dwelling of a family composed of twelve children and their chief. It contains, besides, the apartments of one of the principal instructors, a preparatory department for children entering, and the business office, of which more will be said below.

2. The bakery building, with the storehouse for grain; containing also the gardener's lodgings, and those of five apprentices and a printing assistant.

3. The Swiss house, occupied in the lower story by the printing office, and above by the boys' infirmary and the store-room for paper.

4. The working house, containing in the first story a number of workshops for carpenters, tailors, shoemakers, spinners, wooden-shoe makers, &c., and above, apartments for a family of boys and a number of brothers.

5. The bee-hive is occupied in the first story by a family of boys, and above by the lodgings of a number of brothers and the teacher of an elementary class.

6. The girls' house, accommodating two families of little girls, one of which occupies the lower story and the other the upper.

7. The tower building containing the chapel or oratory, the library, the school-rooms, the preparatory department for girls, sundry rooms used by the children and brothers, the apartments of the second head instructor, &c.

8. The mother house, containing, besides the apartments of the director and his family, the kitchen, the laundry and store-room of provisions, lodging for some girls, the chambers for strangers, and some other premises for the use of the establishment.

9. The stables, the horse stables, store-room of farming tools; together with the apartments of the farming overseer, and the sheds serving for barns and store-rooms.

10. The bookbinding and stereotyping shop.

11. The fisher's cabin; lodging a family of boys and a group of brothers.

12. The shepherd's cabin; containing in the first story a division of new comers with their overseer; above the brothers' infirmary, and the apartments for pupils re-entering the establishment.

13. The wash-room and its appurtenances.

All these buildings are scattered and grouped picturesquely about, among the gardens belonging to the establishment. Several of them have been built by the children, with the help of the brothers overseeing them. There are three divisions in the establishment.

1. The reform school for children; which contains on an average 100 pupils, of whom two-thirds are boys, and one-third girls.

2. The institute of brothers, including the officers of the institution and assistants; and which serves also as a preparatory or normal school for the young men intending to join the "inner mission" founded by M. Wichern. The inner mission is intended, among other things, to train chiefs of families, overseers for reform schools, prisons, charitable institutions, hospitals, agents for Christian associations, (Bible societies, mutual aid societies,) working missionaries for home and colonies, &c. The institute contained 34 brothers in 1847; at which period 20 had left the establishment, and were acting in some of the above capacities, in Germany, Switzerland, and America.

3. The printing establishment and business office, including a bookseller's, a bookbinder's, and a stereotyper's shop.

These three departments, although attached to a common center, have each their separate existence, accounts and appropriations. They all originate from the private association, and are sustained by subscriptions, gifts, and legacies. The reform school has chiefly a local character, and draws its support principally from the city of Hamburg. The institute of brothers is of a more general character, and is accordingly principally supported by beneficent persons elsewhere. The printing office and business establishment was organized by a stock company, and its profits are applied in certain proportions to the two other sections of the establishment.

The pupils of the reform school are classed in groups of 12 children. Each family under the supervision of a brother or sister, according to the sex of the children, occupies, as we have seen, a separate habitation, consisting of a sitting-room and a common sleeping-room. There are five families of boys, and two of girls; and besides a preparatory department for new comers, before their admission and regular location in families.

To each family is attached a group of brothers, of whom one fills the place of chief or father, and the others assist him or supply his place in regular order.

The officers, &c., employed in the government supervision, and other services of the establishment, are, 1. the director and his family. This post has been filled since the origin of the institution, by M. Wichern, with remarkable distinction; it is chiefly to his efforts and persevering zeal that the Rauhen-Haus owes its completion and prosperity; 2. three instructors; 3. three or four foremen or assistants; 4. brothers, whose number is various and increasing; 5. two sisters or assistants; 6. twelve workmen in the printing and business establishment, merely paid wages, and not lodged on the premises.

The instruction given to the pupils does not differ from that given in good German primary schools. The labor performed is of various kinds, and executed by separate families and pupils. They include the domestic labors, the housekeeping and house-work, field and garden culture, and certain industrial occupations, whose profits are added to the resources of the establishment.

Under the first class of occupations are, shoe-making, making and mending clothes and bedding, carpentry, wooden-shoe making, woolen thread-spinning, in which the young children are employed, baking, masonry and painting, housekeeping, cleaning house, furniture, &c.

The farming work is directed by a farming overseer. The land is principally cultivated by the spade; and the large kitchen-garden furnishes abundance of legumes (beans or peas) for the consumption of the establishment. There are several head of cattle on the farm. There has been established a basket-making shop, which employs a number of children during winter.

The workshops proper are the printing shop, the bindery, lithographing shop, coloring shop, stereotypery, and wood-engraving shop. A silk-weavers' shop has also been in operation since 1846.

The girls are chiefly busied in the household, and fill the places of servants, cooks, washerwomen, ironers, laundry-women, and seamstresses. The younger assist the elder; they pick legumes, make and mend coarse linen, knit and mend stockings, and keep the rooms in order. They all keep in order and mend their own clothes.

All this work, except the printing and bookbinding, is performed under the direction and supervision of brothers or sisters, who, as a general rule, are expected to understand, at entering the establishment, some one of the occupations practiced there.

The physical training of the Rauhen-Haus is at once simple and healthy. Nothing is neglected as to care of bedding, clothing, neatness, and sanitary regulations. Although the establishment is very healthy, a physician visits the establishment regularly. The food is frugal, but abundant. It usually consists, at breakfast, of soup thickened with buckwheat flour cooked in milk; at dinner, of soup of various kinds, rice, barley, beans and others, with potatoes; to which are added in summer, green legumes, and meat regularly twice a week; at supper, of a piece of bread and a glass of beer, or of the remains of dinner. The children are not put on allowance, and may eat as much as they please. The brothers eat at their own ordinary, except at supper, when they dine at a common table, presided over by the wife or mother of the director, at which also sit children whose birthdays are celebrated.

The children are admitted at from eight to ten years of age, and remain at the establishment until after their confirmation, or until they can be placed in good situations, or returned to their families without inconvenience. In 1845, of 82 children, four (girls) were from 8 to 10 years old; 31 from 10 to 14; 29 from 14 to 16, and 18 from 18 to 23 years. No child, unless orphan or abandoned, is received without the consent of its parents.

During ten years after the foundation of the establishment, the average age of the children, at the moment of their entrance, was 12 years and 6 months and a half, and at the time of their dismission, 17 years, two months, and two-thirds. It follows that the average duration of their stay, was 4 years, 2 months, and $\frac{1}{4}$ths. From 1834 to 1847, there were 120 admissions. Pupils who can not re-enter their families, are usually apprenticed to masters carefully selected from among honest and pious artizans. There is no difficulty in getting these situations, and the apprentices from the Rauhen-Haus are even sought after, on account of the education and practical training which they have received at the establishment. The institution continues to exercise a beneficiary patronage over its graduates. Apprentices in the neighborhood are regularly visited every week or every fifteen days, according to the distance, by the brothers, who carry them good advice, and converse with them on subjects interesting to them. Every fifteen days they meet in the afternoon or evening, in summer at the Rauhen-Haus, and in winter in the town, under the presidence of the director. They attend also at the festivals celebrated from time to time at the establishment. As active a correspondence as possible is maintained with the elder pupils who are at distant places or in strange countries. The existence of the institute of brothers, and its extension within the last few years, as well as the situation of the brothers in different parts of Germany, facilitate reports, and contribute to maintain, outside the establishment, the spirit which reigns within.

The girls are usually placed at service.

There is established a patronage fund, which pays expenses of apprenticeship, &c., occasioned by procuring situations.

At the beginning of 1844, of 81 children who had left the establishment, 33 were apprenticed to artizans or mechanics, 7 entered at service as farm-laborers or domestics, 7 had become day-laborers, 11 (girls) had become servants, 9 became sailors, 3 entered the army, 1 prepared himself for the university, 5 continue at the school; the occupation of 3 is unknown, and 2 children belonging to a family of vagrants have not been able to be kept to any regular occupation. Of this number, 27 including the sailors, either have no fixed residence, or are living at a distance; 16 have returned to their families, and consequently have ceased to sustain regular relations with the establishment; 38 remain in regular and more or less frequent communication with it.

According to information very carefully collected about the conduct of these 81 children, 6 or 7 only are conducting ill; two of these were imprisoned for theft; all the others, 74 or 75, have given no cause for complaint, and some have distinguished themselves by activity in labor and sound morality. A result so favorable would be very satisfactory in ordinary life; it therefore testifies much more strongly in favor of the organization and discipline of the Rauhen-Haus, which, as we have already said, receives only vicious or condemned children, or those whose primary instruction has been entirely defective.

At first sight, the organization of the Rauhen-Haus establishment present nothing; fault even might be found with the confusion of the buildings, scattered here and there, and an absence of centralization which would seem calculated to cause difficulties in supervision, and to be contrary to economy. But these apparent faults disappear upon studying the interior organization of the institution, and upon considering the purpose of its creation. This purpose was to restore a family to the children; to place them within a sphere of relations, duties and affections calculated to change their habits, to reform their character, and to elevate their souls. The organization of the Rauhen-Haus has therefore been modeled upon that of the natural family. The children are classed in groups of 12; each group forms one family; over each family is one overseer, who fills the place of a father. All the families besides, are gathered about a common center, and are under the authority of a common father, the director who presides over the entire institution and watches over its general interests.

Each family occupies a separate tenement. This is usually in the lower story: it includes a common sitting-room, furnished with benches, tables, and cupboards, and having on one side a sleeping-room, and a small apartment serving for washing-room, and for a depository for housekeeping utensils. These apartments are distinguished only by neatness and plainness; they have no ornaments, except gifts presented by friendly hands. Each dwelling has a yard for exercise, more or less shady, and a small garden in which the children raise the beans and peas needed for their own consumption. All these little gardens are inclosed within the principal garden of the establishment, and form with it a whole by no means destitute of beauty and harmony.

The chapel, school, and workshop, are common to all, and serve as a common bond between the members of different families, who meet each other in them at certain intervals.

In the morning, in summer at ½ past 4, and in winter at 5, the bell rings, as the signal to rise. The brother or sister repeats a short prayer; the children make their beds, wash and comb themselves, and usually, in summer, the boys run and take a bath in a small river running through the middle of the estate. Each family then puts its house in order; the rooms are cleaned, the furniture dusted. If there be time to spare, it is used in study and reading, or in working in the garden. At 6 the bell rings again, and each family, under the conduct of its overseer, proceeds, Bible under arm, to chapel, to attend domestic divine service. This service which is performed with solemnity, lasts about an hour, at the end of which time each family returns home, where it finds breakfast ready. Half an hour is allowed for this, during which the brother reviews and explains, as may be necessary, the preceding instruction. From half past seven to twelve, the families disperse and form new groups. This time is occupied in school (usually for an hour,) and in manual labor in the gardens and workshops. At 12, all the members of each family meet again for dinner; one of the children has set the table; two others have been to the central establishment for provisions; the meal is begun and ended with a short prayer repeated by the brother, who partakes of the same frugal fare with the children, and takes advantage of this intercourse to put himself on familiar terms with them. After dinner comes play-time; the children play, take care of their flowers, or read; the servants wash and set away the cooking and eating utensils. At one the bell gives the signal for returning to work which is continued till half past four. From half past four to five, supper and rest. From five to seven, the time is again divided between labor and study. From seven to eight each family is within its own habitation, where it may busy itself in relaxation or in whatever manner it pleases. At eight comes the evening divine service, which, like that in the morning, calls all the members of the institution together in the chapel. Bedtime is from eight to half past nine, and the day ends as it begun, by a short prayer repeated by the brother who lodges in the same dormitory with them, but who sits up much longer than they.

The occupations of Saturday are in some measure different from those of the other days of the week, 2 or 3 children are designated in each family, to clean up the house completely; from 5 to 6, the whole family together puts the yard and garden in order, so that all may be neatly arranged for Sunday. From six to seven, the brother or sister presides at a conference, where are discussed the events of the past week, and matters of interest to the family; the arrangement of labor for the next week is made, and the children in charge of them selected; the servants for the time being restore the utensils which they have had in charge, and which are committed, after examination, to their successors, who become responsible for them in their turn. This species of rotation maintains the activity and stimulates the emulation of the children, at the same time that it accustoms them to domestic occupations, and gives them a taste for, and habits of, order and neatness.

Sunday is consecrated to worship and rest. Except while in chapel, each family remains together during the whole day. In the morning, at a proper time, the children change their linen, and put on their festival clothes, which generally differ from each other in form and color. The family appointed for that purpose, according to a succession previously designated, goes, with spades and rakes, to the burying-ground of the children who have died in the establishment, to put in order, to replace flowers and shrubs, and to keep it in good condition. In the afternoon, after having attended divine service, each family, if there is time, goes to walk with its overseer. This walk has usually an object; sometimes to visit a teacher or a farmer in the neighborhood, sometimes to see some remarkable site, monument, or establishment. These excursions are varied by games or singing. Sunday is also the day for visits from parents; and some children whose conduct is good, receive by way of reward, permission to visit their families, in the town or vicinity. And all the school, meeting together again, attends evening service, which concludes the day.

Every day after morning service, the director holds a short meeting, at which the children and the assistants attend. At this meeting faults committed the day before are noticed, and the director admonishes or punishes; the particular arrangements of the day are announced; necessary directions to the assistants given, and a review made of the children, to see that they are clean and neat, and their clothes in good order.

Every Monday, the director holds a meeting of the assistants, at which special reference is made to every child; the director listens to the observations of the brothers, and gives them instructions.

Lastly, on Saturday evening there is held a special meeting for the discussion of matters pertaining to labor, economy, supervision of workshops, &c.

The two head teachers assist the director, and occupy his place, if needed. They have charge in particular of the supervision of families and workshops. All the premises are also visited once or oftener, every day. In each vestibule are two registers; on one of them is an inventory of the furniture, and on the other the inspector enters whatever remarks his visit may have suggested.

The organization of the Rauhen-Haus is so contrived, as we have remarked, as to attach the pupils to the institution, and to unite them and their overseers together, as if they were members of the same family. To appreciate the influence exerted for this purpose, we must, so to speak, descend into the depths of the establishment, and investigate the little events which vary its existence. We will only mention, under this head, the festivals at which the pupils and assistants meet several times a year. These are of two kinds; one confined to a single family, as those which celebrate the birthday and baptism of pupils or brothers, the arrival or departure of one of them, &c.; the others are the general festivals at which all the families and assistants meet, together with the friends and benefactors of the establishment. At these, which take place monthly, the boxes intended to receive voluntary gifts are ornamented with flowers, and carried solemnly to the chapel by two little girls. They are opened before the assembly, and prayer is offered for those persons whose charity contributes to the support of the institution. The anniversary of the foundation of Rauhen-Haus is celebrated every year, with solemnity; but of all these solemnities, the most remarkable are those at Advent and at Christmas. We shall be thanked for giving, on this subject, some details which we find in the tenth report of the director, (1845,) and which give, at the same time, an idea of the spirit reigning within the establishment, and of the artless character of its members.

"From the commencement of autumn may be discerned the symptoms of joy at the approach of Christmas. A new life seems to animate the families of boys and girls. All is excitement; one is thinking of the gift which he expects, another of that which he means to give; imagination is active; plans fail and succeed; when all arrangements are in good train, each family is hard at work within its own particular circle; every body is carefully keeping a secret; the brothers and sisters help the children at their work. As the important day approaches, activity redoubles; not a leisure moment is lost; the weekly evening which each family has at its disposal, is especially devoted to these mysterious preparations. What is their design? To prepare Christmas presents wherewith to surprise the director and his family. Sometimes they are models of the Rauhen-Haus buildings; sometimes of religious edifices; or pictures in relief of scenes from the Bible. Some of these models are five or six feet high, and executed with remarkable care and accuracy; in the chapel may be seen the altar, the pulpit, the organ, the stalls, the bells; the workshop is supplied with all its tools, the chamber with its furniture, beds, chairs, tables, stoves, &c. All these articles are carefully hidden until the day of their solemn exhibition. Meanwhile, at Advent, begins the religious instruction introductory to the coming festivals; by which their minds and hearts are both prepared. The Christmas songs are practiced; and soon are in every mouth; those lately arrived learn them from the elder; their meaning and religious signification is explained. During the last week of Advent, joy resounds from all sides. On the Sunday before Christmas, each family, under the direction of the brother its supervisor, goes about the neighborhood to invite to the feast the respectable poor, with whom the establishment has constant connection. These good people must also have their gifts; and the pupils take upon themselves this responsibility, and appropriate to this purpose their small savings. In these visits they sometimes see wretched spectacles; but a picture before their eyes serves to put good thoughts and useful remembrances into their minds.

At last the holy day is come. All is properly prepared; the day passes; it is evening. The large vestibule of the "Mother House" is opened, and each family arrives in procession, carrying the gift which it has patiently prepared. All the articles, whose bulk is sometimes considerable, are arranged in the middle of the room, and are ornamented with wreaths and evergreens; the Christmas tapers are lighted, and when all is in complete order the director and his family are invited to behold the spectacle prepared for them. Their arrival is greeted with shouts and songs; the hall glitters with lights; all gather in groups and admire the result of the labor of each family; paintings, transparencies, inscriptions, testify to the sincere affection of the children towards their benefactor; and certainly, to him, this testimony is not the least precious of their gifts. During the same evening, the assistants and brothers receive the gifts designed for them. The programme of the rejoicings of the next day is communicated to the assembly, the Christmas songs which have been printed are distributed, and after having returned thanks to God by hymns and prayer, the families return in the same order to their respective dwellings.

Next day the bell proclaims the grand festival. All arise in haste by lamplight; the children put on again their festive garments and gather at the "Mother House," where was held the joyous meeting of the preceding evening. All sing the hymn of the day, and after having returned thanks to God, they return home to breakfast. Divine service takes place as usual. Meanwhile the kitchen is in unusual activity. At noon, all members of the establishment take their places at a large table, and partake of a repast, whose most delicate dishes have been sent as presents by friends from the town and neighborhood. Some of these friends, some former pupils, some parents, seat themselves among the children, and become with them members of one large family. There is joy in every heart; singing succeeds; and before the feast is finished, come the poor invited several days before by each family. All rise, in a few minutes every thing is put away in its place, and every trace of the repast has disappeared. Each family, with its guests, returns to its well-warmed home, to familiar entertainment; where the children sing their prettiest songs, to do honor to their visitors. About half-past two, there arrive from every direction the friends of the institution, who, for the sake of attending this ceremony, have often traveled several leagues in inclement weather, and in the depth of winter. The bell rings anew, and the families proceed to the chapel, conducting their poor visitors, who at their arrival take their seats at a table spread expressly for them. The chapel ornamented with foliage and evergreens, looks like a thick grove. Although of considerable size, it can scarcely hold the numerous audience assembled at the solemnity. The director reads the gospel for the day, between whose verses are sung hymns appropriated to the occasion. A discourse chiefly addressed to the poor and to visitors from abroad, reviews the purpose, origin, and progress of the institution. Then come forward the schools of the neighborhood, with their instructors at their head; one offers a prayer and sings a hymn in memory of the pupils dismissed from the Rauhen-Haus; another invokes the protection of God for poor and abandoned children; another implores pity upon all prisoners; all then unite their voices in a concluding hymn, after which each school deposits its modest offering in the box appointed for receiving gifts to the establishment.

It is time to proceed to the decoration of the feast to the memory of absent friends. This is the moment which is awaited with so much impatience by the children from the beginning of the Advent. From the commencement of this period, all the school meets at noon to listen to the reading of those passages of scripture which announce the coming of the Messiah; which is followed by the singing of a hymn. The chandelier of the chapel is furnished with as many candels as there are days in Advent; every day one more of these is lighted, so that the number of lights constantly corresponds with the approach of the festival.

We left all the members of the institution in the chapel. No sooner have the ceremonies above described terminated, than is commenced the lighting of all the tapers in the chandelier, and also of a multitude of wax candles skillfully arranged throughout the building, which quickly glitters with light. This illumination is generously furnished by the friends of the establishment. The appearance of the chapel, with its tapers, its candles, its green boughs and ornaments, is truly marvellous. The spectator, especially if for the first time, is overpowered by the enthusiasm of the pupils and the guests. As the illumination proceeds, the singing concludes; when it stops, the director, amidst profound silence, reads the following passage from St. Matthew: "When the Son of Man shall come in his glory, and all the holy angels with him, then shall he sit upon the throne of his glory," &c. After this reading the pupils come forward by families towards the poor guests, and give them the little presents which they have prepared for them; then each family in succession sings another song, and the ceremony concludes with a prayer and concluding chant, in which all the assistants join.

The poor return home, carrying salutary impressions and joyful recollections; the children return to their homes until 6 in the evening, when another signal calls them to the chapel. Some of the friends of the institution, present in the afternoon, have departed; but others have arrived to be present at the ceremony of the evening. In the interval, tables are arranged in the chapel, on which are put the Christmas gifts for the families and the children; which gifts also are supplied by the inexhaustible kindness of the benefactors of the institution. These gifts are of all descriptions; books, images, wall-cards, (cartes murales,) little articles of furniture, tools, &c.; they are accommodated to the wants, and commonly satisfy the desires of each. It is delightful to see the pleasure which is afforded by the sight of this little exhibition. Scarcely is the saloon opened, when all, small and great, pupils and visitors, hurry in, crowding together as if in a fair, where each selects the article which pleases him best. Thus ends the day, which, of all the days in the year, is most ardently desired, and leaves the most delightful impressions.

This day has more to-morrows than one; each family renews its own memory of it, within itself. Let us transport ourselves to one of these renewals, some weeks after Christmas. It is Sunday evening, a new comer would imagine that the festival had been postponed for that family, and that it was celebrating it for the first time. Evergreens and green pyramids ornament the saloon, and upon the table the presents are arranged. The organ, the violin, and the flute, accompany all kinds of singing; the joy is as great and as uncontrolled as at the general feast. The guests have not been forgotten; and an invitation to the private festival of a family is never neglected. The day before, the children sent written invitations to comrades in other families, who are present at the designated time. Among them is a newly admitted pupil, who must be shown the manner of keeping Christmas. The director's family has also been invited, and comes, bringing Christmas cakes or other little presents of the same kind, which are the more welcome as they are more unexpected. While all are rejoicing, the door opens and there enters, accompanied by a dozen pupils and a brother, a messenger in strange costume, carrying an immense game-bag, and a feathered hat. There is surprise in every face, for nobody expected any such apparition. Meanwhile the messenger comes forward, and delivers to each member of the family a large letter addressed to him. All hasten to open them; and after removing several envelopes, it appears that each letter contains a small present. Who was the messenger, and whence come these tokens of friendship? Another family got news of the festival, and promptly determined to contribute to it; and so each of its members selected from his own property a gift to a comrade in the other family. One pupil was appointed to take charge of the gifts, and all accompanied him to enjoy the surprise of their brothers, and to partake in their joy. It is unnecessary to say that the impromptu visitors receive a cordial welcome; they take seats at the table and partake of the modest supper which is prepared; the singing goes on, and the festivities of the evening prolonged to a later hour than usual, end, as always, by prayer to God."

The institute of the brothers of the Rauhen-Haus, like the school of foremen at Mettray, forms an essential part of the organization. M. Wichern, like M. M. Demetz and de Brétignères, has perceived that the work of reforming vicious and condemned children could not be intrusted to mercenary hands; and that it was necessary to accomplish it, to use motive higher than those of temporal interest. The brothers of the Rauhen-Haus are to a certain extent similar to the brothers of charity, and brothers of Christian doctrine, in Catholic countries. To be admitted to the institute, they must furnish proof that their conduct has always been honorable, and safe from all reproach; that they have always done the duty of a good Christian, and that they have truly a religious vocation; that they have no infirmity, and enjoy good health and a robust constitution; that they understand farming, or some trade useful in the establishment, or at least that they have sufficient mechanical talent to learn some one of these occupations; that they have a certain amount of education, or the intelligence and disposition necessary to profit by the special course of instruction intended for them in the institution. They are also required to have the consent of their parents to their entering the proposed career, and the certificate of their exemption from military service. Their age at admission is usually from twenty to thirty years. Notwithstanding the strictness of these conditions, candidates are never wanting, and their number is usually even greater than that of disposable places.

The institute of brothers is supported, like the reform school, by subscriptions and private gifts, and has its own separate treasury, finances, and accounts.

The brothers, in their connection with the reform school, have charge of the direction of families, and of the supervision of pupils confided to their care. They keep them in sight, night and day; they eat with them, sleep in their dormitory, direct their labor, accompany them to chapel, partake in their recreations and sports. Attached at first to families, as assistants, after a certain time of apprenticeship, they undertake, in rotation, the direction. They visit the parents of the children, and report to them their conduct and progress; exercise an active and beneficial supervision of the pupils, after their departure from the school; teach the elementary class; assist the director in religious instruction and in the writing and correspondence of the establishment. The monthly enrolment or rotation of brothers in each family brings each brother successively in contact with all the pupils, enlarges their experience, facilitates their apprenticeship and assists in teaching practical knowledge, and as it were, brings into contact with all the families the experience acquired in each.

Besides these duties, the brothers in turn attend a special course of instruction presided over by the director, with the assistance of the two head teachers. This course occupies twenty hours a week, so distributed as to correspond with the working hours of the children, and including religion, sacred and profane history, German, geography, pedagogy, singing and instrumental music; there is also a special course in English. The brothers are classed in two divisions, an upper and lower, each directed by one of the teachers. Each course lasts two years, so that the complete instruction given to each brother occupies, on an average, four years. At the end of this time, the brothers should be prepared to fulfill the duties of the "Inner Mission," whose agents they are. These duties, as we said at the beginning of this account, are as various as the needs which the mission undertakes to satisfy. The brothers, accordingly, at leaving the institute, are usually placed in one or the other of the following positions:

Chiefs or fathers of families in reform schools organized like that of the Rauhen-Haus; overseers and assistants for moral discipline, in establishments for children; instructors in the same; instructors in agricultural schools; directors, stewards, overseers, or watchmen in prisons of different kinds; directors or fathers of families in hospitals and charitable institutions; overseers of infirmaries; agents of benevolent or mutual aid societies; missionaries and preachers in colonies to America; missionaries within the country, for journeymen and traveling apprentices, &c., &c.

The number of demands for brothers for these different purposes, or other similar ones, increases every year; so that the director is continually trying to extend the normal institute intended for their preparation.

The printing office, the bookselling shop, and their dependencies, attached to the establishment in 1842, contribute the double purpose proposed by the founders; they furnish occupation for a number of children during their stay at the Rauhen-Haus, at the same time that it teaches them an occupation which they can practice after leaving; and also serve as a means of propagating the principles and views which have governed the work undertaken by M. Wichern with such unusual perseverance and so much success. Here is published yearly a double report on the situation of the reform school, and the condition and progress of the institute of brothers and of the Inner Mission. There is also issued a review, appearing twice a month, under the title of "Flying Leaves," (Fliegende Blätter,) which is intended not only to inform the public of matters concerning the Rauhen-Haus, but also to give news of charitable establishments and operations at home and abroad. We have not examined the spirit governing these publications, and extending throughout the establishment, and consequently have not formed opinions on it. Some term it exaggerated; for our own part we are pleased to see there the expression of a sincere and profound conviction, and of a true Christian sentiment of compassion for evils and miseries requiring prompt relief.

The accounts of the different sections of the Rauhen-Haus are kept by the director, under the control of the administrative committee of twenty members, chosen from among the founders and benefactors of the establishment. Each section has its separate treasury and accounts. The treasuries are eight in number, namely:

1. Treasury of the reform school.
2. " " " institute of brothers.
3. " " " printing office.
4. " " " business establishment, and book shop and dependencies.
5. " " " childrens' savings, where account is kept with each, of expenses and receipts.
6. " " " brothers' savings.
7. " " " patronage of the institution.
8. " " " private gifts for particular purposes.

The accounts of 1844–45, fix the receipts and expenses of the school as follows:

RECEIPTS.

From subscriptions,	$2,107.40
" voluntary gifts,	632.80
" payments for board,	1,186 80
" charity box,	165.68
" sundry receipts,	35.42
Total,	4,828.08

This amount does not include farming produce, receipts from workshops, private gifts for particular purposes, nor gifts in kind, which make every year a considerable sum, and diminish by so much the receipts of the establishment.

EXPENSES.

Maintenance and repairs of buildings,	$365.14
Insurance against fire,	25.70
Expenses of pupils leaving,	13 70
Board,	2,110.00
Oil and light,	119 42
Fuel,	323.70
Washing,	100.84
Expenses of order—supervision,	78.84
Clothing of children,	178.00
Physician and drugs,	47.14
Expenses of supervision,	208 56
Salary of director,	428.56
Farming and other tools,	48 28
Furniture and cooking utensils,	220 56
Salaries,	143 70
Expense of school,	24 00
Expense of cultivation,	224.00
Cattle,	78.56
Rents,	59.42
Expense of receiving children,	3.14
Presents to children,	4.56
Printing and postage,	7.42
Sundry expenses,	14.84
Total,	4,828 08

There were in the school in the same year, 100 persons—86 children, and 14 officers. The expense per head was therefore $51.71; or counting children only, $60.00.

The capital of the establishment, at the same time, was $4,178.46; and its inventory of buildings and real estate, represents a value of $6,538.10.

We append the following notices of this excellent institution by two distinguished American educators.

Prof. Stowe, in his Report on Elementary Public Instruction in Europe, selects the establishment at Horn, as affording a striking example of the happy influence of moral and religious instruction in reclaiming the vicious and saving the lost.

Hamburgh is the largest commercial city of Germany, and its population is extremely crowded. Though it is highly distinguished for its benevolent institutions, and for the hospitality and integrity of its citizens, yet the very circumstances in which it is placed, produce, among the lowest class of its population, habits of degradation and beastliness of which we have but few examples on this side the Atlantic. The children, therefore, received into this institution, are often of the very worst and most hopeless character. Not only are their *minds* most thoroughly depraved, but their very senses and bodily organization seem to partake in the viciousness and degradation of their hearts. Their appetites are so perverted, that sometimes the most loathsome and disgusting substances are preferred to wholesome food. The superintendent, Mr. Wichern, states, that though plentifully supplied with provisions, yet, when first received, some of them will steal and eat soap, rancid grease, that has been laid aside for the purpose of greasing shoes, and even catch May-bugs and devour them; and it is with the utmost difficulty that these disgusting habits are broken up. An ordinary man might suppose that the task of restoring such poor creatures to decency and good morals was entirely hopeless. Not so with Mr. Wichern. He took hold with the firm hope that the moral power of the word of God is competent even to such a task. His means are prayer, the Bible, singing, affectionate conversation, severe punishment when unavoidable, and constant, steady employment, in useful labor. On one occasion, when every other means seemed to fail, he collected the children together, and read to them, in the words of the New Testament, the simple narrative of the sufferings and death of Christ, with some remarks on the design and object of his mission to this world. The effect was wonderful. They burst into tears of contrition; and during the whole of that term, from June till October, the influence of this scene was visible in all their conduct. The idea that takes so strong a hold when the character of Christ is exhibited to such poor creatures, is, that *they are objects of affection:* miserable, wicked, despised as they are, yet Christ, the Son of God, loved them, and loved them enough to suffer and die for them—and still loves them. The thought that *they can yet be loved*, melts the heart, and gives them hope, and is a strong incentive to reformation.

On another occasion, when considerable progress had been made in their moral education, the superintendent discovered that some of them had taken nails from the premises, and applied them to their own use, without permission. He called them together, expressed his great disappointment and sorrow that they had profited so little by the instructions which had been given them, and told them that, till he had evidence of their sincere repentance, he could not admit them to the morning and evening religious exercises of his family. With expressions of deep regret for their sin, and with promises, entreaties, and tears, they begged to have this privilege restored to them; but he was firm in his refusal. A few evenings afterwads, while walking in the garden, he heard youthful voices among the shrubbery; and, drawing near unperceived, he found that the boys had formed themselves into little companies of seven or eight each, and met, morning and evening, in different retired spots in the garden, to sing, read the Bible, and pray among themselves; to ask God to forgive them the sins they had committed, and to give them strength to resist temptation in future. With such evidence of repentance, he soon restored to them the privilege of attending morning and evening prayers with his family. One morning soon after, on entering his study, he found it all adorned with wreaths of the most beautiful flowers, which the boys had arranged there at early daybreak, in testimony of their joy and gratitude for his kindness. Thus rapidly had these poor creatures advanced in moral feeling, religious sensibility, and good taste.

In the spring, Mr. Wichern gives to each boy a patch of ground in the garden, which he is to call his own, and cultivate as he pleases. One of the boys began to erect a little hut of sticks and earth upon his plot, in which he might rest during the heat of the day, and to which he might retire when he wished to be alone. When it was all finished, it occurred to him to dedicate it to its use by religious ceremonies. Accordingly, he collected the boys together. The hut was adorned with wreaths of flowers; a little table was placed in the center, on which lay the open Bible, ornamented in the same manner. He then read with great seriousness the 14th, 15th, and 24th verses of the cxviiith Psalm:

> "The Lord is my strength and my song, and is become my salvation."
> "The voice of rejoicing and salvation is heard in the tabernacle of the righteous."
> "This is the day which the Lord hath made. We will rejoice and be glad in it."

After this, the exercises were concluded by singing and prayer. Another boy afterwards built him a hut, which was to be dedicated in a similar way; but when the boys came together, they saw in it a piece of timber which belonged to the establishment, and ascertaining that it had been taken without permission, they at once demolished the whole edifice, and restored the timber to its place. At the time of harvest, when they first entered the field to gather the potatoes, before commencing the work, they formed into a circle, and, much to the surprise of the superintendent, broke out together in the harvest hymn:

> "Now let us all thank God."

After singing this, they fell to their work with great cheerfulness and vigor.

I mention these instances, from numerous others which might be produced, to show how much may be done in reclaiming the most hopeless youthful offenders by a judicious application of the right means of moral influence.

Hon. Horace Mann in his "Educational Tour," thus describes his visit to the Rauhen-Haus.

It was opened for the reception of abandoned children of the very lowest class, children brought up in the abodes of infamy, and taught not only by example but by precept, the vices of sensuality, thieving, and vagabondry, children who had never known the family tie, or who had known it only to see it violated. Hamburgh, having been for many years a *commercial* and *free* city, and, of course, open to adventurers and renegades from all parts of the world, has many more of this class of population than its own institutions and manners would have bred. The thoughts of Mr. Wichern were strongly turned towards this subject while yet a student at the university; but want of means deterred him from engaging in it, until a legacy, left by a Mr. Gercken, enabled him to make a beginning in 1833. He has since devoted his life and all his worldly goods to the work. It is his first aim that the abandoned children whom he seeks out on the highway, and in the haunts of vice, shall know and feel the blessings of *domestic* life; that they shall be introduced into the bosom of a family; for this he regards as a divine institution, and therefore the birthright of every human being, and the only atmosphere in which the human affections can be adequately cultivated. His house, then, must not be a prison, or a place of punishment or confinement. The site he had chosen for his experiment was one inclosed within high, strong walls and fences. His first act was to break down these barriers, and to take all bolts and bars from the doors and windows. He began with three boys of the worst description; and within three months, the number increased to twelve. They were taken into the bosom of Mr. Wichern's family; his mother was their mother, and his sister their sister. They were not punished for any past offenses, but were told that all should be forgiven them, if they tried to do well in future. The defenseless condition of the premises was referred to, and they were assured that no walls or bolts were to detain them; that one cord only should bind them, and that the cord of love. The effect attested the all but omnipotent power of generosity and affection. Children, from seven or eight to fifteen or sixteen years of age, in many of whom early and loathsome vices had nearly obliterated the stamp of humanity, were transformed not only into useful members of society, but into characters that endeared themselves to all within their sphere of acquaintance. The education given by Mr. Wichern has not been an æsthetic or literary one. The children were told at the beginning that labor was the price of living, and that they must earn their own bread, if they would secure a comfortable home. He did not point them to ease and affluence, but to an honorable poverty, which, they were taught, was not in itself an evil. Here were means and materials for learning to support themselves; but there was no rich fund or other resources for their maintenance. Charity had supplied the home to which they were invited; their own industry must supply the rest. Mr. Wichern placed great reliance upon religious training; but this did not consist in giving them dry and unintelligible dogmas. He spoke to them of Christ, as the benefactor of mankind, who proved, by deeds of love, his interest in the race, who sought out the worst and most benighted of men, to give them instruction and relief, and who left it in charge to those who came after him, and wished to be called his disciples, to do likewise. It is strange that, enforced by such a practical exemplification of Christian love as their fatherly benefactor gave them in his every-day life, the story of Christ's words and deeds should have sunk deeply into their hearts and melted them into tenderness and docility? Such was the effect. The most rapid improvement ensued in the great majority of the children; and even those whom long habits of idleness and vagaboundry made it difficult to keep in the straight path, had long seasons of obedience and gratitude, to which any aberration from duty was only an exception.

As the number of pupils increased, Mr. Wichern saw that the size of the family would seriously impair its domestic character. To obviate this, he divided his company into families of twelve, and he has erected nine separate buildings, situated in a semi-circle around his own, and near to it, in each of which dwells a family of twelve boys or of twelve girls, under the care of a house-father or house-mother, as the assistants are respectively called. Each of these families is, to some extent, an independent community, having an individuality of its own. They eat and sleep in their own dwelling, and the children belonging to each look up to their own particular father or mother, as home-bred children to a parent. The general meeting every morning,—at first in the chamber of Mr. Wichern's mother, but afterwards, when the numbers increased, in the little chapel, and their frequent meetings at work, or in the play-ground, form a sufficient, and, in fact, a very close bond of union for the whole community. Much was done by the children themselves in the erection of their little colony of buildings; and in doing this, they were animated by a feeling of hope and a principle of independence in providing a dwelling for themselves, while they experienced the pleasures of benevolence in rendering assistance to each other. Mr. Wichern mentions, with great satisfaction, the good spirit of the architect who came upon the premises to direct in putting up the first house. This man would not retain a journeyman for a day or an hour, who did not conduct with the utmost decorum and propriety before the children who were assisting in the work.

Instruction is given in reading, writing, arithmetic, singing, and drawing, and, in some instances, in higher branches. Music is used as one of the most efficient instruments for softening stubborn wills, and calling forth tender feelings; and its deprivation is one of the punishments for delinquency. The songs and hymns have been specially adapted to the circumstances and wants of the community, and it has often happened that the singing of an appropriate hymn, both at the gatherings in the mother's chamber, which were always more or less kept up, and in the little chapel, has awakened the first-born sacred feeling in obdurate and brutified hearts. Sometimes a voice would drop from the choir, and then weeping and sobbing would be heard instead. The children would say, they could not sing,—they must think of their past lives, of their brothers and sisters, or of their parents living in vice and misery at home. On several occasions the singing exercise had to be given up. Frequently the children were sent out to the garden to recover themselves. An affecting narrative is recorded of a boy who ran away, but whom Mr. Wichern pursued, found, and persuaded to return. He was brought back on Christmas eve, which was always celebrated in the mother's chamber. The children were engaged in singing the Christmas hymns when he entered the room. At first they manifested strong disapprobation of his conduct, for he was a boy to whose faults special forbearance had been previously shown. They were then told to decide among themselves how he should be punished. This brought them all to perfect silence, and after some whispering and consulting together, one, who had formerly been guilty of the same fault of ingratitude, under still less excusable circumstances, burst out in a petition for his forgiveness. All united in it, reached out to him a friendly hand, and the festival of the Christmas eve was turned into a rejoicing over the brother that had been lost but was found. The pardon was not in words merely, but in deeds. No reference to the fact was afterwards made. A day or two after, he was sent away on an errand to the distance of half a mile. He was surprised and affected by this mark of confidence; and from that time never abused his freedom, though intrusted to execute commissions at great distances. But he could never after hear certain Christmas hymns without shedding tears; and long subsequently, in a confidential communication to Mr. Wichern, respecting some act of his former life, (an unburdening of the overladen conscience, which was very common with the inmates, and always voluntary; for they were told on their arrival, that their past life should never be spoken of unless between them and himself,) he referred to the decisive effect of that scene of loving-kindness, upon his feelings and character.

One peculiar feature of this institution is, that the children are not stimulated by the worldly motives of fame, wealth, or personal aggrandizement. The superintendent does not inflame them with the ambition, that if they surpass each other at recitation, and make splendid displays at public examinations, they shall, in the end, become high military officers, or congress-men, or excite the envy of all by their wealth or fame. On the other hand, so far as the world's goods are concerned, he commends and habituates them to the idea of an honorable poverty; and the only riches with which he dazzles their imaginations are the riches of good works. He looks to them as his hope for redeeming others from the sphere whence they themselves were taken; and there have been many touching instances of the reformation of parents and families, for whom the natural affection first sprang up in these children's hearts, after they had learned the blessings of home and what the ties of nature really are.

One of the most interesting effects of this charity is the charity which it reproduces in its objects; and thus it is shown that, in the order of nature, the actions of good men—provided they are also wise—not less than good seed, will produce thirty, or sixty, or a hundred fold of beneficent fruit. Mr. Wichern makes a great point of celebrating Christmas, and the friends of the school are in the habit of sending small sums of money, and articles of various kinds to adorn the festival. This money has often been voluntarily appropriated by the children, to charitable purposes. They frequently give away their pennies, and instances have happened where they have literally emptied their little purses into the hands of poverty and distress, and taken off their own clothes to cover the naked. On one occasion, six poor children had been found by some of the scholars, and invited to the Christmas festival. There they were clothed, and many useful and pleasing articles, made by the givers, were presented to them. One of the boys read a passage from the history of Christ, and the Christmas songs and other songs of thanksgiving and praise were sung. To the sound of the organ, which a friend had presented to the little chapel, some verses welcoming the strangers, succeeded. The guests then departed, blessing the house and its kind inhabitants; but who can doubt that a voice of gladness, more precious than all worldly applauses, sprang up unbidden and exulting in the hearts of the little benefactors?

But among numerous less conspicuous instances of the change wrought by wise and appropriate moral means, in the character of these so lately abandoned children, the most remarkable occurred at the time of the great Hamburgh fire, in May, 1842. In July, 1843, I saw the vast chasm which the conflagration had made in the center of that great city. The second day of the fire, when people were driven from the city in crowds, and houseless and half frantic sufferers came to the Rauhe-Haus for shelter, the children, some of whom had friends and relatives in the city, became intensely excited, and besought Mr. Wichern for leave to go in and make themselves useful to the sufferers. Not without great anxiety as to the force of the temptations for escape or for plunder that might assail them in such an exposed and tumultuous scene, he gave permission to a band of twenty-two to accompany him, on condition that they would keep together as much as possible, and return with him at an appointed time. This they readily promised; nor did they disappoint him. Their conduct was physically as well as morally heroic. They rushed into the greatest dangers to save life and property, and though sometimes pressed to receive rewards, they steadily refused them. At stated intervals they returned to the appointed place to reassure the confidence of their superior. On one occasion, a lad remained absent long beyond the time agreed upon, but at last he appeared, quite exhausted by the labor of saving some valuable property. Mr. Wichern afterwards learned from the owner, not from the lad, that he had steadily refused the compensation offered to, and even urged upon him. When the company returned home at the appointed time, he sent forth another band under the care of a house-father, and these exerted themselves in the same faithful and efficient manner. This was done as long as the necessity of the case required. From this time the Rauhe-Haus was the resort of the poor and homeless, and not for days only, but for weeks. The pupils shared with them their food, and even slept upon the ground to give their beds to the destitute, sick, and injured. I can hardly refrain from narrating many other facts of a similar character connected with this institution, for if the angels rejoice over a rescued sinner, why should not we partake of that joy when it is our brother who is ransomed?

In his report for 1845, Mr. Wichern says, the institution was actually so impoverished by the demand made upon it at that time, and the demands upon public charity have since been so great in that unfortunate city, that the inmates have been almost reduced to suffering from the necessaries of life, particularly as he was induced to receive several children rendered homeless by that calamity. To this object, however, even the children of the house were ready and willing to contribute portions of their wardrobe, and they submitted cheerfully to other privations. Mr. Wichern regretted above all other things the necessity of refusing many applications, and it is but doing justice to the citizens of Hamburgh, to state, that on an appeal made by him for funds to erect a new building, they were generously and promptly raised by those who had such unusual claims upon their charity.

A single remark, I must be allowed to make. When an individual effects so much good, it seems to be often thought that he accomplishes it by virtue of some charm or magic, or preternatural influence, of which the rest of the world can not partake. The superintendent of the Rauhe-Haus is a refutation of this idea. Laboriously, perseveringly, unintermittingly, he uses MEANS for the accomplishment of his desired ends. When I put to him the question, in what manner he produced these transforming effects upon his charge, his answer was, "By active occupations, music, and Christian love." Two or three things should be stated in explanation of this compendious reply. When a new subject comes to the Rauhe-Haus, he is first received into Mr. Wichern's own family. Here, under the wise and watchful guardianship of the master, he is initiated into the new life of action, thought, feeling, which he is expected to lead. His dispositions are watched, his character is studied; and as soon as prudence allows, he is transferred to that one of the little colonies whose house-father is best qualified to manage his peculiarities of temperament and disposition. Soon after the opening of the establishment, and the increase of its numbers, Mr. Wichern found that it would be impossible for him to bestow the requisite care and oversight upon each one of his pupils which his necessities demanded. He cast about for assistance, and though he was able to find those in the community who had enough of the spirit of benevolence and self-sacrifice to undertake the difficult labor to which his own life was devoted, yet he soon found that they had not the other requisite qualifications to make their benevolent purposes available. He could find enough well-intentioned persons to superintend the workshops, gardens, &c., but they had not intellectual competency. So he could find schoolmasters who could give good lessons, but they were not masters of any handicraft. He was therefore driven, as he says, to the expedient of preparing a class of teachers, to become his auxiliaries in the work. For this end, he has superadded to his original plan a school for the preparation of teachers; first to supply himself, then to send abroad to open other institutions similar to his own, and thirdly to become superintendents of prisons. This last object he deems very important. Questions about prison-architecture, he says, have given a new literature to the world; but as yet, nothing, or but little, is done to improve the character or increase the qualifications of prison-keepers. I have often felt the force of this remark, in the numerous continental prisons which I have visited. Though the masters of the prisons have generally appeared to be very respectable men, yet the assistants or deputy-turnkeys have very often seemed to belong to a low order of society, from whose manners, conversation, or treatment of the prisoners, no good influence could be expected.

This second institution of Mr. Wichern is in reality a normal school, which the necessities of his situation suggested, and forced him to establish.

During the ten years of the existence of this institution, there have been one hundred and thirty-two children received into it. Of these about eighty were there on the 1st of July, 1843. Only two had run away, who not either voluntarily returned, or, being brought back, had not voluntarily remained. The two unreclaimed fugitives committed offenses, fell into the hands of the civil magistrate, and were imprisoned.

Who can reflect upon this history, where we see a self-sacrificing man, by the aids of wisdom and Christian love, exercising, as it were, the evil spirits from more than a hundred of the worst children whom a corrupted state of society has engendered; who can see this, without being reminded of some case, perhaps within his own personal knowledge, where a passionate, ignorant and perverse teacher, who, for the sake of saving a few dollars of money, or from some other low motive, has been put in possession of an equal number of fine-spirited children, and has, even in a short space of time, put an evil spirit into the bosom of them all?

What is most remarkable in reference to the class of institutions now under consideration, is the high character of the men, for capacity, for attainments, for social rank, who preside over them. At the head of a private orphan house in Potsdam, is the venerable Von Türk. According to the laws of his country, Von Türk is a nobleman. His talents and acquisitions were such that at a very early age, he was elevated to the bench. This was, probably, an office for life, and was attended with honors and emoluments. He officiated as judge for fourteen years; but in the course of this time, so many criminal cases were brought before him for adjudication, whose only cause and origin were so plainly referable to early neglect in the culprit's education, that the noble heart of the judge could no longer bear to pronounce-sentence of condemnation against the prisoners; for he looked upon them as men, who, almost without a paradox, might be called *guiltless offenders*. While holding the office of judge he was appointed school inspector. The paramount importance of the latter office grew upon his mind as he executed its duties, until, at last, he came to the full conception of the grand and sacred truth, how much more intrinsically honorable is the vocation of the teacher, who saves from crime and from wrong, than the magistrates who waits till they are committed, and then avenge them. He immediately resigned his office of judge, with its life-tenure and its salary; traveled to Switzerland, where he placed himself under the care of Pestalozzi; and, after availing himself for three years of the instructions of that celebrated teacher, he returned to take charge of an orphan asylum. Since that time he has devoted his whole life to the care of the neglected and destitute. He lives in as plain and inexpensive a style as our well-off farmers and mechanics, and devotes his income to the welfare of the needy. I was told by his personal friends that he not only deprived himself of the luxuries of life, but submitted to many privations in order to appropriate his small income to others whom he considered more needy; and that his wife and family cordially and cheerfully shared such privations with him for the same object. To what extent would our own community sympathize with, or appreciate the act, if one of the judges of our higher courts, or any other official dignitary, should resign an office of honor and of profit to become the instructor of children.

Even now, when the once active and vigorous frame of the patriarchal man is bending beneath the weight of years, he employs himself in teaching agriculture, together with the branches commonly taught in the Prussian schools, to a class of orphan boys. What warrior, who rests at last from the labors of the tented field, after a life of victories; what statesman, whose name is familiar in all the courts of the civilized world; what orator, who attracts towards himself tides of men wherever he may move in his splendid course; what one of all these would not, at the sunset of life, exchange his fame and his clustering honors, for that precious and abounding treasury of holy and beneficent deeds, the remembrance of which this good old man is about to carry into another world! Do we not need a new spirit in our community, and especially in our schools, which shall display only objects of virtuous ambition before the eyes of our emulous youth; and teach them that no height of official station nor splendor of professional renown, can equal in the eye of Heaven, and of all good men, the true glory of a life consecrated to the welfare of mankind?

REFORM SCHOOL, OR COLONIE AGRICOLE,

AT

METTRAY, NEAR TOURS, IN FRANCE.

THE institution or colony of Mettray, four miles from Tours, was founded by M. Demetz and M. le Vicomte de Brétignères de Courteilles, both gentlemen of wealth and high social position, who, associating themselves with other philanthropists, founded in 1837 a society, whose object is thus expressed:

1. To exercise a benevolent superintendence over children of tender years, who have been acquitted of crimes in consequence of their youth, and which may be confided to their care by the State; to procure for these children, placed in an agricultural institution, a moral and religious education, as well as an elementary instruction; to teach them a trade; to accustom them to the healthy toils of agriculture, and to procure them situations at the expiration of their term, in the country, at the homes of artizans, or small farmers.
2. To watch over the conduct of these children, and to give them all the aid of their patronage as long as they shall need it, or for three years.

The founders of Mettray accepted the sublime doctrine of Christianity, which authorizes a belief in the possibility of regeneration, and permits not to despair of the most abandoned human being; and they have made religion the fundamental principle of their system. "On religion," writes De Tocqueville, one of its founders, "depends the future of all penitentiary reform."

The practice of religion, the love and habit of labor, the spirit of family association, the emulation of example, the cultivation of honor, the habitual obedience to law, and a self-imposed restraint on the use of liberty—these grand and simple ideas embrace all the reforming influence, all the moralizing power of Mettray. Placed here with a view to their restoration to society as freemen and productive laborers, they are here ingeniously indoctrinated with the spirit of the family, habituated to social duties, a self-regulated liberty, and to the constant occupation of their choice. No armed police, no walls, no bolts, no keys, honor alone preserves at once discipline and freedom. "Why," said a visitor, "do you not escape?" "Because there are no walls, and it would be disgraceful," replied the colonist of Mettray.

The details of organization, instruction, employment, and administration, and the results, economical and reformatory, of this interesting enterprise, will be found clearly set forth in the following report of a visit made by M. Ducpetiaux in 1849, and included in his Report to the Minister of Justice in Belgium.

The following account of the school of Mettray is taken from notes made during a visit there in September, 1849, with special reference to certain matters of organization, administration, discipline, and statistics. Its purpose was altogether practical; for which reason, it enters into details which are usually overlooked in visiting such an establishment, only to form a more or less complete idea of it, or to write a description.

There was another purpose, in addition to this, namely: to observe the effects of the revolution in France of 1848 upon the school of Mettray, and to judge of the strength and vitality of an enterprise commenced by private efforts. Our fears on this subject have been quite relieved. Mettray has resisted both the political and financial crisis; and notwithstanding the decree which, by suppressing mechanical labor in the prisons, has broken up its workshops and confined its pupils entirely to agriculture, and the material reduction in its resources, we found it in its usual prosperity, and under its usual admirable discipline.

The peculiar character of this establishment is owing to the qualities of its officers. There are there two men—M. Demetz and Viscount de Courteilles—bearing titles, and enjoying all the advantages of fortune and high social position, who devote themselves exclusively to an unobtrusive and wearisome employment. Their virtues and their example have gathered around them a band of young men animated with the same spirit, and who have sacrificed unhesitatingly their own interests to that of the work in which they are associated. Unfortunately, this number has recently been diminished by the necessity of retrenching the expenses of the establishment within the bounds of the strictest economy. The reform in this direction has only operated upon the corps of officers. Some, thinking their number too great, thought it might be reduced without inconvenience. This, however, was not the opinion of the committee sent in 1849, by the committee on labor of the national assembly, to visit the school of Mettray. This commission declared in its report, that *the school was a great source of good, and would save to society a still greater sum of evil;* and ended by saying that the government *could receive nothing but honor from taking the school of correction at Mettray under its protection.* Hon. M. Gillon, representative from the department of the Meuse, spoke with regard to the officers, as follows:

"The large expense at Mettray is owing to the number of persons employed; but this large number is required by the plan of the school, which is, to use moral influences, and to use them so well that the children will remain honest people all their lives. It is of great importance to them to leave the school with health improved, mind educated, and knowing an occupation which puts them above want; but moral reformation, the social affections, the principles of honesty and religion, good habits and qualities of heart, are a thousand times more important; and these it is impossible to bestow upon the children without costly and numerous preparations. It would be possible, instead of building a separate house for forty only, to lodge them in large rooms like barracks; instead of placing a head of a family over every forty children, an overseer might take charge of eighty or a hundred; but in that case the personal influence of the directors or of their subordinates, coming from a more distant point and extending over a greater surface, would be less deep and thorough, and the effects less salutary and lasting. Nature gives only a few children to one father.

"That cheaper arrangements might have been made, we do not deny; but it is difficult to believe that in that case such complete and satisfactory results would have followed. Certainly those which we actually witnessed at Mettray do not appear to have been too dearly purchased."

Notwithstanding the justice of these observations, an imperious necessity forced the directors to dismiss twenty assistants; by which a saving was made of $3,585. After this reduction, the officers and assistants of the school and their salaries were, at our visit in September, 1849, as follows.

A.—Officers.

Two directors, without salary.
One assistant director, without salary.
One general agent at Paris, without salary.
One chaplain, $360, and lodging
One principal secretary, $400, lodging, board, and uniform at $12 per annum.
One treasurer, $400, and same.
One book-keeper and chashier, $240, and same.
One head teacher, $200, and same.
One head overseer of labor, $240, and same.

B.—Chiefs of Families.

Eleven chiefs of families, $100, lodging, board, and uniform at $12 per annum.
One jailor, $100, and same.
One singing-master, (employed also as clerk,) $100, and same.

C.—Sub-Chiefs of Families.

Twelve sub-chiefs of families, ... 40 dollars.

D.—Foremen of Mechanical Workshops.

One master tailor, $60, with board and lodging.
One master blackmith, $200, and lodging.
One master wooden-shoe maker, $180, and lodging.
One master wheelright, $180, and lodging.
One foreman of painting, glazing, and lighting, $120, and lodging.
One master carpenter, $140, and lodging.
One master rope-maker, $140, and lodging.
Two masons, paid by the day, at (1 fr. 75c.) 35 cents.

E.—Agricultural Foremen.

Ten agricultural foremen, $60, with board and lodging.
Two gardeners, paid by M. Courteilles, but whose labor is given to the school.

F.—Teamsters.

One head wagoner, $80, with board and lodging.
Three drivers—two at $60, one at $50, with board and lodging.

G.—Other Assistants.

One watchman, $120.
One domestic, $60, with board and lodging.
One messenger, $60, with board and longing.
One farm watchman, $60, with board and lodging.
One miller, $200, in full.

All those in lists B, C, D, E, F, and G, have also a uniform, except the gardeners and the miller.

H.—Sisters of Charity.

Seven sisters of charity, $30, with lodging and maintenance, except clothes Of the seven, one is the superior; the others respectively have charge of expenditure, cooking, washing, work-room, infirmary, and pharmacy.

The medical supervision is intrusted to a physician of Tours, who visits daily the sick of the school.

The entire number of officers and assistants, paid and unpaid, is 65, besides 7 sisters of charity. Their proportion to the number of the pupils, is one to seven. The amount of salaries is $6,410; of other allowances, $4,565, namely:

Board of maintenance of 55 assistants, at 20 cents a day, average, ...	$4,015
Uniform of same, at average of $10 per annum,........	550
Total,..............................	$4,565

The whole expense for personal services is therefore $10,975; that is, for 522 pupils, an expense of $21 a year each.

Each individual employed may have twelve days' vacation a year, which are arranged according to his own convenience and that of the establishment, but so that not more than two are absent at the same time.

The preparatory or training school of foremen continues to answer the purpose of its creation; it is an actual seminary from which the establishment draws its best and most devoted officers.

Admissions to the preparatory school are not allowed, except for very particular reasons, before the age of sixteen years; they are much more frequently at seventeen and eighteen.

No fee is demanded for the instruction; the school provides for them, and gives them an education in the knowledge requisite for overseers, teachers, and farmers. They occupy a separate location, in the building with the infirmary. They occupy, in case of need, the places of the heads and sub-heads of families, act as substitutes generally, and serve as clerks. After a certain period of probation, those who have not the necessary qualities or capacity, are sent home to their families.

Of 157 pupils admitted to the preparatory school, up to 1st January, 1849, 36 are still at Mettray, where they fill the places of secretary, treasurer, cashier, teacher, store watchman, conductor of labor, chiefs and sub-chiefs of families; 9 have left Mettray, to enter the profession of teaching; 14 are engaged in different occupations, (roads and bridges, railroads, insurance offices, trades;) 10 have entered the army; 5 are farming overseers; 31 are practicing industrial occupations; 51 have left the school for want of capacity; 1 is dead.

The school of foremen has now 12 pupils, of whom several intend to teach, and the others to practice horticulture or agriculture.

NUMBER ADMITTED.

The school proper has increased only slowly and progressively. During the ten years since its foundation, its numbers have enlarged as follows:

December 31, 1840,	77	December 31, 1845,	376
" 1841,	134	" 1846,	425
" 1842,	176	" 1847,	528
" 1843,	221	" 1848,	526
" 1844,	339	" 1849,	560

The last reports on the condition of the school, in 1848 and 1849, furnish some interesting statistics, from which an opinion can be formed upon the actual condition of the school, and the results up to this time of the arrangement and discipline introduced there.

One thousand one hundred and eighty-four children have been admitted into the school, from its establishment in June, 1839, to December 31, 1849. In 1849 alone, there were 144 admissions.

Of this number were present, January 1, 1850, 546. In November, 1849, the number of pupils was 563—the greatest since the opening of the school.

Of 1040 children admitted up to 1st January, 1849, 237 were illegitimate, 742 born of a first marriage, 61 were of parents married a second time.

During the same time there entered 13 children under 7 years old, 222 under 12 years old, and 805 over 12.

The 560 scholars who composed the school in the end of 1849, were occupied as follows: 336 farming, 71 gardening, 141 learning trades, 12 cooks, lamplighters in infirmary, &c.

The occupations learned at Mettray are almost all connected with the labors of the field. Such are the trades of the wheelwright, blacksmith, farrier, carpenter, mason, wooden-shoe maker, shoemaker, tailor, rope-maker, sail-maker. The pupils have not made any additional clearings; but they have dug a hundred acres of land, eighteen inches deep. They have also made and repaired all the roads of the school and the farm. The soil of the latter, although presenting some difficulties on account of the boulders scattered over it, is nevertheless, in general, fertile. It produces grain of all kinds, wine, cider, various fruits, legumes, fodder, madder, &c.

The decree of the Provisory Government which put an end, in the beginning of 1848, to labor in the prisons and benevolent institutions, forced the authorities of Mettray to close half their workshops, and to send the hands to agricultural labor; which explains the large number of pupils employed there.

This change has not taken place without great embarrassments, and difficulties of daily occurrence. All peculiarities and characters are not fit for agricultural labor. The apprentice to a carpenter, a wheelwright, or blacksmith, who was just about becoming a journeyman, regretfully remembers his trade; becomes disgusted with the labor of the farm; and murmurs, and is dissatisfied at the government which condems him to involuntary labor. It is not now, as formerly, the preference or the talent of the children which must be consulted, but the necessities of the new situation of the school.

Notwithstanding these difficulties, the conduct of the pupils has continued good, as is shown by the register of honor. The average number of names in this register, during 1849, has been 224; of whom are registered—

For the first time,	56	For the fourth time,	22
For the second time,	29	For the fifth time,	19
For the third time,	18	For the sixth time,	16

For the seventh time,........	12	For the eleventh time,.......	5
For the eighth time,.........	10	For the twelfth time,.........	4
For the ninth time,..........	9	For the thirteenth time,......	4
For the tenth time,..........	8	For the fourteenth time,......	5

And one, each of the following numbered times—fifteenth, sixteenth, seventeenth; eighteenth, nineteenth, twentieth, twenty-first.

In 1847, of 509 pupils, were registered 226 names; in 1848, of 522 pupils, were registered 257 names; and the same year 46 names were erased. The children remain in the school, in general, for a period of not more than three years; and as the register of honor is written up every three months, it is easy to see why the number of names entered more than twelve times, is very small.

Since the opening of the school, 528 pupils have been put in situations, 105 of whom were placed during 1849. Of these 528—150 are in military service, either by conscription or voluntary enlistment—127 in the army, and 23 in the navy; 17 are married, and most of them have children; 150 have remained of irreproachable deportment; 26 have conducted moderately well; 6 have run away from their guardians; 46 have relapsed. Of these last, 33 are from towns, and 19 from Paris—the remaining 11 from the country. Their number may at first sight appear painfully large, but on considering the condition in which these children have been placed, it seems surprising that it is not greater; for, of 528 children leaving during ten years, 43 were foundlings; 46 are of parents remarried, (step-children;) 222 have neither father or mother; 106 are illegitimate; 18 are of parents living in concubinage; 142 are of families of bad reputation; 77 are of parents now in prison.

With such parentage, was there not good reason to fear for their future?

At Mettray, as at most other schools of the same class, it is often noticed that the children sent from the towns show repugnance to agricultural labor. Of 200 pupils from the department of the Seine, 9 only have finally settled in that employment. These children belonged mostly to families of mechanics, who spoke contemptuously, in their letters, of rural occupations. The children born in the country fortunately have different feelings.

The annual reports furnish interesting details of the nature and results of the patronage extended to the dismissed pupils, and of the efforts made to find them situations. The success of these operations in 1848 and 1849, has surpassed the expectation of the directors. The number of pupils in situations increases yearly, and forms a numerous outside population, constituting really a second school, outside the first. The correspondence of the officers with these young people is daily, and requires special agents and continual care. There is, in truth, almost no end to the assistance given to the pupils of Mettray. The establishment sustains to-day more than 509 pupils, whom it has really adopted, and whom it watches vigilantly; and this number is increasing daily. But this occasions no fears to the authorities of the school, because they are convinced that for so good a work, there will never be any lack of sympathy.

The pupils are permitted, when out of work, and until there is a good situation found for them, to re-enter the school and take their place temporarily in the family of which they formed a part. This receives them like a brother, and divides its food with them.

The pupils who continue to conduct themselves well for two years after leaving Mettray, receive from the directors a symbolic ring with the device, "Faithfulness surpasses all," (*Loyaute passe tout.*)

The penalty of continued misconduct is the replacement of the pupil in the central establishment. This was inflicted during 1848 but three times—twice for immorality, and once for assisting in an attempt to run away.

The sanitary condition of the school is very satisfactory, and the number of deaths has been very small. From its foundation in 1840 to 1849, during 10 years, it has lost only 59 children. The number and per centage of deaths during that period has been as follows:

Year.	Number.	Rate.	Per cent.	Year.	Number.	Rate.	Per cent.
1840	2	1 to 51	= 2	1845	4	1 to 84	= 1⅕
1841	7	1 to 26	= 4	1846	7	1 to 76	= 1¼
1842	1	1 to 40	= 2½	1847	10	1 to 50	= 2
1843	3	1 to 47	= 2⅛	1848	17	1 to 51	= 5
1844	5	1 to 144	= ⅖	1849	3	1 to 134	= ¾

Of the 17 pupils deceased in 1848, thirteen were diseased with pulmonary consumption, one with typhoid fever, one with tuberculous meningitis, one with scrofulous consumption, and one with dropsy. In 1849, of four deaths, two were from pulmonary consumption, one from typhoid fever, and one from scrofula. This small mortality is the more surprising, because cholera and dysentery made great ravages in 1849 in Tours and the vicinity.

The amount of mortality depends especially upon the health of the children when they arrive at the schools. According to the reports of the physicians employed at Mettray, that place is perfectly healthful. The pupils have up to this time escaped all the epidemic maladies which have ravaged the country. Investigation of the register shows that the number of children admitted to the infirmary decreases in proportion to the increase of the length of their stay in the school; which proves that their constitutions are invigorated under the regimen there established.

Of 1184 children admitted at Mettray, up to December 31, 1849, 717 came completely ignorant; 270 had some notions of reading; 143 knew how to read; 54 only knew how to write.

The pupils have 14 hours of school instruction a week, divided as follows: Religious instruction, 2 hours; reading, writing, and arithmetic, 10 hours; vocal music, 2 hours. The chaplain also teaches the catechism an hour every day, to those children who have not received their first communion—generally 9-10ths of the whole. The elementary instruction given to the pupils is equivalent to that received by the mechanics in the towns. The classes are formed in each family under the direction and supervision of the head instructor. The chiefs and sub-chiefs have assistants chosen from among the pupils, and who receive daily a special lesson two hours long from the head instructor. At certain periods of the year, each family selects six of its best scholars, who, together with those selected by the other families, write compositions. These exercises are followed by the delivery of prizes. By this double arrangement, of the daily classes in the families, and the meeting of them all, is secured all that emulation which springs from the strife of many competitors.

One of the general inspectors of primary schools, who was recently sent to Mettray by the minister of public instruction, sums up as follows the amount of instruction given at the time of his visit:

"The pupils are children deprived, for the most part, until they come to Mettray, of all instruction, moral or intellectual. All that is indispensable for them is the first rudiments of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and instruction in religion. In addition to this, however, have been taught to the more intelligent, linear drawing and singing church music. Lessons in vocal and instrumental music are given to the best pupils, by way of reward.

Upon the whole, I am of the opinion that the school of Mettray deserves the testimony of your highest good wishes, and that it will be proper to grant to it a subsidy from the public funds, for the increase of the joint school established there for foremen and pupils."

Besides the practical instruction resulting from the employing of the pupils in agriculture, they attend, once a week, a course of lessons in agriculture, horticulture and veterinary practice. The directors of Mettray propose to adopt for this course the course of study of the agricultural schools; they also intend to establish a special agricultural school for young persons other than the members of the school proper, who may wish to study such a course, regarding for this purpose the usual course of cultivation in the neighborhood.

The division of the pupils into families is a characteristic of the discipline at Mettray: each family occupies a separate building, containing its dormitory, refectory, and school. This house is 39 feet long by 21½ feet wide, and containing a basement and two stories. The outer room of the basement serves for a workshop; in some of the houses it is divided into compartments by a partition low enough to permit a single overseer in the middle, to inspect all the divisions, and high enough to prevent the children, when seated, from seeing each other, or communicating. The air circulates in the open space above, so as to keep all the compartments at the same temperature, whatever the number of children employed in each. The first and second stories are each thrown into one spacious room, which, by an ingenious arrangement, serves in turn as dormitory, refectory, play-room in bad weather, and school-room. Two beams, fixed by a hinge at one end, are erected against the wall, one on each side of the door. To arrange the refectory, these are lowered and rested on uprights; in which position they separate the room into two divisions, leaving a passage in the middle for the overseers; boards are laid crosswise the room, upon the beams, resting upon them and the wall, and the refectory is ready. To prepare the dormitory, instead of the boards are arranged hammocks, stowed along the walls, which are taken down and hung to the beams. These hammocks are slung parallel to each other, but so that of every two children, the head of one is toward the wall, and of the other toward the beam. This arrangement hinders talking, and facilitates supervision. Above each is a cupboard containing the effects of the pupil, which he is required to keep very neatly.

At one end of the room is a small alcove shut in from it by blinds, permitting the occupant to look through without being seen. Here the "chief of the family" sleeps. He has the supervision of two sections of 20 children each, and is assisted by a "sub-chief" and two "elder brothers," chosen from among the pupils.

This arrangement is the same for all the houses except two, one of which serves for the lodging of the chaplain, and the other contains the business offices of the school. The space of 33 feet, which separates the houses from each other, is occupied by sheds which serve as depositories for farming, and for shelter from rain. The house where the youngest of the children are lodged has been placed, by a touching inspiration, under the protection of Mary, the patron of the afflicted and of the motherless. The other houses have carved upon their fronts the names of the individuals or towns whose liberality contributed to the foundation of Mettray.

The ten houses are arranged upon two sides of a spacious court, planted with shrubs and covered with turf. At one end of it is the church, a simple and majestic structure, rustic yet elegant; at the other is a pavilion which serves as a dwelling house for M. de Metz, one of the directors. In front of this are erected the mast and spars of a ship, with their rigging and sails. This apparatus, which is quite perfect, is to be used for the exercises of the naval apprentices. It was presented to the school by the minister of marine.

To the right and left of the church are two buildings containing a large school-room, a store-room of farming tools and models, lodgings for assistants; behind it is the house of correction, surrounded with a walled court-yard. This is a small prison consisting of cells, built so as to form a prolongation to the church; so that the children when shut up may attend divine service, and see the priest at the altar, without leaving their cells, or seeing one another. This is arranged simply by drawing a screen.

Around the house of correction are arranged the farm-yards and buildings, a handsome range of stables for cattle, barns, a piggery, horse-stables, a dairy, &c.; and a little further the cemetery. The principal stable, which can accommodate fifty head of cattle, is divided lengthwise by a wide passage, on both sides of which are arranged the mangers.

Near the entrance to the establishment, but a little on one side, is a separate building containing the infirmary, the laundry, the school of foremen, the apartments of the sisters of charity, the kitchen, the wash-room, the bakery, the shop, &c.; before it is the gymnasium and its apparatus; behind it, the kitchen-garden.

All the buildings have been erected after the plans of the architect M. Blouet, who has himself directed the operations in the most honorably disinterested manner. From the accounts which we have seen, it appears that each house for pupils cost $1,520; the cow-house $5,089.40, and the chapel and prison, $18,934.20. Adding to the price of each house the sum of $480 for movables and other expenses, we have a total of $2,000; equal to an annual expenditure of $100 for each family, and of $2.50 per pupil.

The cemetery which stands some distance from the buildings, forms a parallelogram, where the graves are arranged in regular order. At the head of each is planted a cypress; in the middle of the cemetery is erected a cross. The "elder brothers have the care of the cemetery. All the children attend the funerals; and the directors, on these occasions, address them in simple and touching words, which make upon their minds the impression which the funeral ceremony makes upon their imagination.

The expenses of the school are so calculated as to furnish each pupil with necessaries, but with no superfluities.

The bedding consists of a simple hammock, a small grass mattress, a pillow, a pair of sheets, and one or two coverlids, according to the season.

The wardrobe given to each pupil at his admission, contains,

1 shirt, $1.20; 2 blouses, $1.34; 3 pair pantaloons, $2.07; 2 pair gaiters, $0.30; 1 cap, $0.40; 1 straw hat, $0 25; 1 pair shoes, $1.20; 1 pair wooden shoes, $0.23; 2 blacking-brushes, $0.10; 1 hair-brush, $0.05; 1 comb-brush, $0.05; 1 comb, $0.05; 1 black neckcloth, $0.20; 1 red do., $0.15; 1 woolen blouse $1.21; 1 woolen waistcoat for winter, $1.00; 1 pair drawers of fustian for winter, $0,40; total, $10.20.

The shirts, and washed clothes in general, are owned in common; and are changed often enough to obey the requirements of neatness. These clothes include for each child 3 shirts, 3 handkerchiefs, and 2 pair winter stockings.

At leaving, the pupil also receives a complete wardrobe, viz., 2 pair pantaloons, 2 blue blouses, 1 waistcoat, 1 cap, 1 pair suspenders, 3 cotton shirts, 2 cravats, 3 pocket-handkerchiefs, 3 pair under stockings, 1 pair shoes; of which the expense is estimated at $6.00.

The labor and age of the children require substantial nourishment, which is furnished as follows:

Two days per week.

Bread, 26½ lb. (750 gr.,) costing,	$0.03.6
Dinner; meat, four-tenths of a pound, legumes, bread, and soup,	0.02
Supper; potatoes and butter; salt and onions,	0.01
Drink,	0.00.4
	$0.07

Five days per week.

Bread, 26½ lb.,	$0.03.6
Dinner; beans or other legume, butter, salt, onions,	0.00.6
Supper; legumes, butter,	0.01.6
Drink,	0.00.4
	$0.06.2

The weekly board of each pupil at Mettray cost, September, 1849, $0.45; at the reform school of Ruysselede, at the same time, it was not over $0.28.

The daily arrangement of time varies with the seasons. [*See appendix.*]

At entering the school, the pupil is interrogated as to his birth, the condition of his family, the fault which brought him before the court, and in short all the details of his short and often sad history. This information is entered in a register, where also is written afterwards whatever concerns each pupil, his stay at the school, his conduct and situation after his departure. An examination of this moral account is very interesting; it shows the good effect of the management and discipline of the establishment. We made minute investigations into the elements of these modest annals, for the purpose of preparing a similar system, which we have introduced into the reform school at Ruysselede.

After having been examined, the pupil is placed in a family, and set at work either on the farm or in a workshop, in a manner suitable to his age and strength, and as much as possible, to his individual fitness. It has been considered proper to teach or continue the child in the occupation of his family, if it have an honest one, for the pupil, at the expiration of his term, should naturally return to his parents, and render them his services. This very practical consideration demands respectful attention.

The classification by families establishes among the pupils who compose them a sort of community of interest and bond of brotherhood. All feel under obligations to each, and each to all. Interest and emulation are excited among the pupils with as much skill as propriety. Part of the work is given out by tasks; and the self-respect of the pupils urges them to show themselves worthy of this mark of confidence. They are taught to consider it honorable to be useful to their comrades, and especially to their masters; and accordingly none are employed in detached services; for cooking, baking, in the kitchen-garden and infirmary, in waiting upon the foremen's table, except those whose conduct has been good. From time to time are held general meetings of the pupils in the workshops; the children decide on each others merits, and the highest receive a small individual reward, which is placed in the savings-bank. No regular wages are ever given for labor. Neither the payments nor prizes, of which we have spoken, are given, except to pupils whose names are upon the register of honor. The distribution is made once a week for the school, and once a month for the workshops; the amount may average $5.00 per pupil. The elder brothers have a special payment of $0.20 a month, besides a ration extra on Sunday, and for them, likewise the payments made for labor and good conduct are doubled.

The classification of the pupils by families, as above remarked, is the peculiar characteristic and the pivot of the discipline of the school. The families are formed by means of a nucleus, around which are arranged and aggregated the new pupils. This plan allows of the preservation of the family feeling, and of its peculiarities and associations. The regulations inserted after this notice give complete information as to the organization and discipline of the families, and the privileges and duties of the chiefs, sub-chiefs, and elder brothers.

The elder brothers, chosen by the pupils within each family, can not inflict punishments; they only note marks for ill conduct. These bad marks are read by a director, on Sunday, in the general meeting of all the officers and pupils. In this same meeting, the director gives a detailed account of the situation of each family, distributes penalties and rewards, gives news from pupils gone and in places, reads extracts from their correspondence, and communicates all matters of interest to the school.

Each chief of a family makes a special report on the conduct of the pupils; this is read at the meeting of the chiefs of families and officers, which takes place every Saturday afternoon. At this meeting, over which a director presides, is arranged the outline of the report for the general meeting on Sunday, the list of rewards and punishments, &c.

The punishments are as follows:

1. Public admonition; 2. standing still—deprival of play; 3. dry bread for one or two meals; 4. being shut in a cell on Sunday; 5. imprisonment in lighted cell; 6. ditto, in dark cell, (the duration of this imprisonment is never told, but it is not generally more than two or three days. The imprisoned pupils perform two hours' exercise a day, at an ordinary step, and at the gymnastic step, in the yard around the house of correction. During these exercises, the more culpable wear handcuffs;) 7. dungeon for not more than three days; 8. erasure from register of honor; 9. replacement in the central establishment.

Some offenses are adjudicated by the pupils themselves, who are appointed a jury for that purpose; the directors reserving only the power of moderating the verdict. When a gross offense is committed, the foreman sends the offender to the "hall of reflection," an isolated apartment, where he remains some time before being visited by a director. During this interval, the child recovers from his anger, the director then hears his story, and punishment, if necessary, is never inflicted on him while irritated.

Rewards are individual and collective. The latter are bestowed upon families, and consist of public eulogies, and of presents and tokens of remembrance, which are preserved with care. The others consist of eulogies, public likewise, gifts of articles of daily usefulness, rewards for labor and for application while in school, and favors of different kinds. But the principal encouragement, and that most valued, is registration in the register of honor, which is granted only to pupils who have been three months without punishment, and who have, besides, distinguished themselves for good conduct.

All these ingenious details, showing the high order of intelligence which presides at Mettray, and also a profound knowledge of the character of children, have been more or less imitated in most of the other reform schools, and especially at that of Petit-Bourg, where we find the elder brothers under the name of monitors, the jury of pupils, the weekly meeting of officers, the register of honor, &c.

We have seen that the industrial organization at Mettray received a rude blow by the decree of the provisional government (in 1849) above-mentioned. At the time of our visit, however, the workshops were beginning to be re-established. Of the 11 families in the school, 7 were more especially occupied in agriculture; the 4 others, although furnishing a certain number of agriculturists and horticulturists, were chiefly employed in the workshops, at wheelwrighting, blacksmithing, locksmithing, carpentry, shoemaking, tailoring, rope and sail-making.

To have the right of changing to another workshop, the pupil must rank among the first three of his family, and be registered in the register of honor.

The school cultivated, at first, only 30 acres; it has now extended its improvements to more than 500 acres. Of this extent it owns about 37 acres; the remainder is leased from neighboring proprietors.

In 1847, the division as to crops was as follows:

	Acres.		Acres.
Winter wheat,	150	Winter vetches,	20
Spring "	7½	Spring "	15
Winter oats,	52	Grape vines,	20
Spring "	80	Meadow,	62½
Mangel wurtzel,	12½	Hemp,	3
Peas,	3	Kitchen-garden,	22½
Indian corn,	10	Jerusalem artichokes,	2½
Potatoes,	8¾	Clover, sanfoin,	25
Beans,	7½	Wood,	10
		Total,	491½

There are, moreover, 15¾ acres, occupied by play-grounds, roads, buildings, underwood, and pasture, making a total of 505 acres, the entire domain of the school.

Numerous springs rise from the slopes. A small river and a brook flow the whole length of the farm, from northeast to south. The brook is used to irrigate an extent of 37½ acres. The river can not be used for that purpose, being used by a number of mills, very near each other. The school has no manufacturing establishment; but it owns a grist-mill with three run of stones, to which might be added a cleaning machine, or a machine for cutting woolen rags. The farming apparatus is sufficient.

Three families of pupils live on three farms worked by the school. A fire which occurred upon the farm of Gandières, but which was soon put out, occasioned this arrangement. It was supposed that one watchman was not sufficient during the night. Providence, as it always does, brought good out of evil; auxiliary schools have thus been founded, which may serve as models for establishments smaller than Mettray. We know that this system of small schools has long existed in Switzerland and Germany, where it has produced the best results. It has been advocated in France by the Hon. M. de Rainneville, who has put it in practice on his farm of Allonville, near Amiens. M. Achille Duclésieux has also devoted himself enthusiastically to its introduction into Brittany, having successfully established an experimental school at Saint Ilan, (Morbihan.)

Besides the chief and sub-chief of the family occupying it, there is attached to each farm at Mettray a farming overseer and a female housekeeper. Each farm occupies from 75 to 100 acres. The buildings are so arranged as to contain, besides the barn and stable, the necessary room for the housekeeping and lodging of the family. There is a common kitchen, and a separate room for the chief. The apartment of the pupils is arranged so as to serve in turn for sleeping room, refectory, school-room, and covered play-ground. It is usually from 45 to 52 feet long, and from 23 to 26 feet wide. For securing a healthy atmosphere are used ventilators, in the ceiling. The furniture consists of a hammock for each pupil, three pair of tables, twelve benches, shelves along the wall for stowing property, two cupboards, the sub-chief's bed, and the cooking apparatus and farming tools. An inventory is given in appendix F. The cost of furnishing the establishment, and putting it in working order, may be estimated at (1,100 to 1,200 francs) $220 to $240. The school furnishes provisions for, and directs the administration of the three farms, although each of them has its separate accounts, kept by the chief of the family.

In other respects, the regulations and discipline of the detached families upon the farms, are quite the same as those of the families resident at the central establishment. In case of sickness, the pupils are carried to the central infirmary and treated there. Every Sunday the detached families pass the day at the central school, and join in the exercises, meetings, and sports of the other families. Thus is maintained the common bond among them.

Agricultural labor is the principal occupation at Mettray now, and the existing workshops can be considered only as dependencies upon the agricultural establishment. This state of things demands the greatest care in cultivation, which unfortunately is by no means in a satisfactory condition. Being pressed by circumstances, and by the necessity of extending the area of cultivation in proportion to the growing number of inmates, the directors at Mettray have had to struggle with great local difficulties. Much of the land hired requires labor, long, costly, and difficult for children to perform. Many large stones must be moved before the plow or spade can be used. This slow operation is hardly performed before the leases expire. The school, therefore, probably does not recover its advances, and the proprietors of the land, and not the school itself, receive the advantage of its severe labors. Add to this the frequent change of the farming overseers, each using a different system and different processes, and it is easy to account for the unfavorable pecuniary result of the agricultural operations of Mettray. In 1848, this branch of the establishment incurred a considerable debt, which has probably now been paid; but the necessity is demonstrated of a radical and intelligent reform in this department. The directors are seriously occupied about this matter; if we might offer them our advice, it would be, to inquire in the first place if it would not be best to limit cultivation to the land already cleared and in good condition, and to turn the rest, if possible, into meadows. By concentrating upon the former the labor and the manure which have proved insufficient for too extended an area, there would no doubt be obtained crops better, and relatively more abundant. The kitchen-garden in particular should be so enlarged as not only to answer the demands of the establishment, but to yield a surplus, which would probably find a market in the neighborhood and at Tours.

The school at Mettray has ever since its its origin enjoyed lively sympathies, commanded not only by its object and its usefulness, but also by the personal character of its founders. General and municipal councils, courts of appeal, civil and commercial tribunals, royal and private families, all have hastened to its aid. Juries have made collections for it. M. Leon d'Ourches has given to Mettray $32,000. Others, instead of giving money, have generously provided the school with farming tools, clothes, books for the library, pictures, vases, and ornaments for the church. These unostentatious offerings have been considerable. The government has not confined itself to paying all the personal expenses of the children confined there, but has also assisted the establishment with considerable annual appropriations.

The ordinary expenses from 1839 to 1848, were ..	$117,519.74	
Extraordinary do.,	96,297.38	
Total expenses,		$213,817.12
Receipts from without,	$187,365.98	
" at home,	12,071.27	
Total receipts,		$199,437.25
Balance of expenses over receipts,....		$14,379.87

The annual expense for maintenance of pupils, assistance of dismissed pupils, school of foremen, and advancement of capital, (amortissement du capital,) divided by the number of pupils at Mettray, gives the following results:

Year.	Population.	Expense per head per day.	Year.	Population.	Expense per head per day.
1840,	57,	$0,46.1	1845,	345,	$0.26.9
1841.	113,	21.4	1846,	400,	.27.9
1842,	160,	.20.9	1847,	459,	.26.1
1843,	188,	.28.3	1848,	509,	.20.1
1844,	289,	.26.3	1849,	536,	.19.

It appears that the expense has regularly decreased, according to the increase of the population. This diminution has continued through 1848 and 1849, in spite of the breaking up of the workshops and of the consequent decrease of profits on labor. This result is due to the economy introduced by the directors into different branches of the service. By persevering in this course, reorganizing its mechanical labor, and adopting a system of agriculture which shall put an end to deficits and bring in a profit, the school of Mettray will undoubtedly succeed, in a short time, in overcoming the difficulties which it has hitherto encountered, and in settling its organization upon a firm financial basis. This is the more necessary, since the government, after 1849, pays only 14 cents a day, instead of 16, for each pupil, and only $14.00, instead of $16.00, for wardrobe at entrance.

APPENDIX.

A.—EMPLOYMENT OF TIME.

Summer

Hours.	SUNDAYS AND FEAST-DAYS.
5.	Rise, arrange beds, and clothes, &c.
5½.	Dressing, washing, &c.; prayer.
6.	General cleaning up.
7.	Breakfast, and play hours.
8.	Mass.
9½.	General meeting for discipline.
10½.	Play.
11¾.	Military exercise · exercise with fire-pump.
1.	Dinner and play.
2.	Vespers, and benediction.
3.	Gymnastics.
5.	Moral lesson, by director, or school.
6.	Baths, + play.
7.	Supper.
7½.	Prayer, singing, and arrange property.
8½.	Bedtime.
10.	Curfew.

Hours.	WORKING DAYS.
5.	Rise, make beds.
5¼.	Dress, wash, &c.
5½.	Distribution of work.
7½.	Breakfast, and play.
8½.	Distribution of work.
12½.	End of work.
2.	School begins.
3½.	Distribution of work.
6½.	Instrumental band practice
7¾.	End of work; put up tools.
8.	Supper.
8¾.	Prayer; evening singing.
9.	Bedtime.
10.	Curfew.

NOTE.—Elder brothers are chosen the first Sunday of each month.

Winter Season.

Hours.	SUNDAYS AND FEAST-DAYS.
6.	Rise, make bed; order, effects.
6½.	Dress. wash, &c.; prayer.
6¾.	General cleaning of house, &c.
7½.	Breakfast, and play.
8.	Mass.
9½.	General meeting for discipline, &c.
10½.	Play.
11¾.	Exercises; military, and with fire-engine.
1.	Dinner, and play.
2.	Vespers, and benediction.
3.	Gymnastics.
5.	Moral instruction, or school.
6.	Reading class.
7.	Supper.
7¾.	Prayer, singing; ordering, effects.
8½.	Bedtime.
10.	Curfew.

Hours.	WORKING DAYS.
6.	Rise, make beds.
6¼.	Dress, wash, &c.
6½.	Distribution of work.
7½.	Breakfast, and play.
8½.	Distribution of work.
12-45.	End of work.
1.	Dinner, and play.
2.	Distribution of work.
6.	School.
7.	Supper.
7¾.	Prayer, singing.
8.	Bedtime.
10.	Curfew.

Instrumental music three times a week, at noon.

NOTE.—Elder brothers are chosen on the first Sunday of each month.

B.—REGULATIONS OF INFIRMARY.

1. The infirmary is directed by a sister of charity; it is a place of quiet and repose; silence must always be observed there; order and propriety must always reign there: children making trouble will be marked the first time, and punished by the sister. If they renew their disorderly conduct, they will be removed to a cell, where their medical treatment will be continued.

2. The police regulation of the infirmary belongs to the superior of the sisters of charity, and to the sister having charge there. The pupils must treat them with obedience and respect; failure to do which would be ungrateful.

3. Each bed is numbered.

4. Each pupil entering the infirmary will be taken thither by the chief of the family, who will deliver him directly into the hands of the sister in charge. The sister will enter in a register opened for the purpose, the pupil's name, the letter of his family, the number of the bed he occupies, and the date of his entrance.

5. At the first visit of the physician shall be entered, if practicable, in a special column, the nature of the disease.

6. Two registers shall be opened, one for the entrance and discharge of pupils, and the number of days passed in the infirmary, and the other for prescriptions and medical observations.

7. A journal shall also be kept by the sister, of the conduct of the children in the infirmary, in which she shall enter the punishments inflicted by her, and the offenses requiring severer penalties. The foreman on guard shall come for this journal every Saturday, and carry it to the council, where it shall be read, and shall carry it back every Sunday morning.

8. In the absence of the sister, the pupils shall obey the pupil in charge, who shall make note of all offenses, and report them to the sister.

9. Each pupil shall come to the infirmary dressed in a cap, neckcloth, blouse, pantaloons, and shoes, and shall have his comb and hair-brush. The sister shall give the chief of the family a receipt for the linen and other effects brought by the pupil. If any pupil shall come without the above articles, the pupil in charge of the infirmary shall get them from the chief of the family alone.

10. Every pupil discharged from the infirmary shall be delivered to the foreman on guard, to whom the sister shall send word by the pupil in charge, at a quarter before eight in the evening, on Monday and Friday, when he goes to supper. The foreman on guard, at his return to duty, shall send the pupil to the chief of his family. To facilitate this service, the sister shall give the list of pupils leaving, daily, to the overseer of labor, who shall insert it in his report.

11. The coming of the physician shall be announced by a signal. The pupil in charge of the infirmary shall touch the bell, upon which the foreman on guard shall cause the trumpet to sound. This visit takes place twice a week, on Monday and Friday.

12. The chief of the house of correction shall report to the physician, at each visit, the sanitary condition thereof.

13. No pupil shall be taken to see the doctor without the written certificate of the chief of his family. The night guard is especially charged to take them to the doctor, upon proof that they have such certificate.

14. There shall take place a dressing (pansement) every day at half-past eleven, for sick pupils. The foreman on guard shall conduct them to it regularly, with an elder brother, so that the pupils shall be at the infirmary at half-past eleven.

15. Any pupil falling sick during working hours, shall be put forthwith under charge of the chief of his family, who alone shall have authority to conduct him to the infirmary. In his absence, the sub-chief shall perform this duty in his place.

16. The treatment ordered for pupils sick at the family, shall be explained by a note which the sister shall send to the chief of the family, who shall superintend the execution of the directions.

17. Whenever the directors shall enter the infirmary, all pupils not confined to their beds shall place themselves at the foot of their beds, and remain there until the gentlemen go out.

C.—REGULATIONS FOR CHIEF OF FAMILY.

1. The school is divided into families of 40 children. Each of them is directed by a chief, who is under the immediate supervision of the head secretary.

2. The insignia of the chief of a family are two ornaments worked upon the sleeves, and black velvet on the cap. He has authority over all officers of a grade lower than his own.

3. The chief of a family has under his orders a sub-chief and two elder brothers, who assist him in the supervision of the family. He reads, every month, to his sub-chief and elder brothers their duties.

4. The chief of a family has charge of the education of its children. He oversees their primary instruction, under the direction of the teacher. He has charge of their dress and support, attends to their wants, corrects their faults; in a word, he *is* the father of the family, and is to fulfill all the duties of the station to the children, as if he were so in every respect.

5. The chief of the family keeps the journal and all papers belonging to the family. He has charge of the correspondence of those who can not write, but he is forbidden to mail them until they have been left unsealed at the business office of the administration.

6. He is responsible for all the property and keeping of his house, linen, furniture, bedding, clothing, lighting, in short every thing upon the inventory of the family.

7. The chief of a family should understand the platoon exercise, for the purpose of managing his family the better during general meetings. He presides over all the sports and movements of the family, watches over its order, and its work, the good condition and neatness of his house, and all his children. He makes an inspection of property daily, and one of clothing weekly.

8. He lives all the time with his family. He rises first, and goes to bed last. He keeps at hand the keys of his doors and cupboards, shuts the house at night after curfew, during religious services, Sundays and feast-days.

9. The chief of a family inflicts punishment upon his children, conducts to the parlor those who have committed a grave offense, and to the infirmary those who are sick. He sends to the night-guard, with a written certificate, all children of his family whom the doctor should see, and who are not permitted to be so seen without such certificate.

10 He is to visit at least twice a week, those of his children who are in the cells or the infirmary, and to report such visits to the directors.

11. Every Saturday he receives from the sister having charge of the washing, the clean linen, and every Monday he delivers her the dirty linen. He is forbidden to retain any thing. He receives also for safe keeping all articles given to the good pupils.

12. Whenever the chief of the family is not at the same time foreman of a workshop, he is occupied during working hours in some of the business offices.

13. He directs a division in school, attends the music class, gymnastics, baths, and all the meetings of the whole school.

14. He performs in his turn the service of day and night watchman, and of waiting on visitors.

15. The chief of a family has leave of absence for a day every month, and every year a vacation. Whenever he wishes to be absent from the school, he will notify the secretary the evening before, who will report the same to the directors.

16. The chief of the family is allowed to be up, in his room, until curfew; at which time every one else in the house must be in bed.

17. The chief of the family is recommended not to have any thing about which may tempt the pupils.

18. The chiefs of the families will send all the children to the foremen of the workshops, and the latter will send the children, at their return, to the chiefs; during these movements, the pupils should always be in their ranks. The chiefs of families will not detain any pupil from his work, or call him off from it, without having received written orders therefor.

19. If the chief of a family finds its impossible to perform his duty, from sickness or any other valid reason, he will immediately notify the secretary, who will fill his place.

20. The chiefs of families will call the children down from their meals by sound of trumpet, for the purpose of sending the sick to receive the physician's visit, or the dressing, every day at 25 minutes past one at latest.

21. For communications relating to their duties, the chiefs of families are to report themselves at half-past ten every morning to the director, who will attend to their requisitions, and give his personal attendance at their families, if it should be required.

D.—Regulations of Sub-Chief of Family.

1. Each family is divided into two sections. The sub-chief commands one of them, under direction of the chief.

2. The insignia of the office of sub-chief are a lace sewed upon the sleeve. He commands all officers of a grade below his own.

3. The sub-chief is under the immediate orders of the chief, and should pay him obedience and respect.

4. The sub-chief assists the chief in supervision, and in taking care of the pupils during play-hours, in the sleeping and eating rooms, and whenever the family is together.

5. He fills the place of the chief, when the latter is absent. He should understand the theory, and be able to command the manœuvres, of the platoon exercise.

6. The sub-chief notes all offenses committed by the pupils, and reports them to the chief, who alone has power to inflict punishments.

7. The sub-chief keeps the attendance roll of the family, by letters and numbers. He calls the roll three times a day, and keeps himself constantly certified of the presence of the pupils. He marks all the effects of each pupil with his matriculate number.

8. He has special supervision of the pupil in waiting, and of those whose duty it is to clean up after every meal, and on Sundays.

9. The sub-chief teaches one division of pupils. He should be present at music class, exercises, gymnastics, baths, and all times when the school is together.

10. He performs in his turn the duty of day and night watch, of waiting on visitors, and of filling the place of foreman of a workshop.

11. The sub-chief is allowed to sit up in his room at night until curfew, when all others in the house must be in bed.

12. From the first distribution of work until breakfast, the sub-chief may attend in the monitor's class, to complete his education.

13. The sub-chief will not be absent on any pretext, without having notified his chief.

14. The sub-chief has a day's leave of absence every month, and a vacation every year. Whenever he may wish to be absent from the school, he will notify the secretary in writing the evening before, who will report the request to the directors.

15. The sub-chiefs are recommended not to have any article about them, which may tempt the pupils.

16. Whenever from sickness, or other valid reason, the sub-chief can not perform his duties, he will forthwith notify the secretary, who will supply his place.

17. The sub-chief will not join in any of the plays of the pupils. He is forbidden to read or write, during the hours of recreation, with his colleagues, or any one else.

NOTE.—The best chief is not he who speaks loudest and punishes oftenest, but he who gives just commands, whose words are concise, persuasive, and such as to command respect, and who punishes seldom.

The intelligent chief should study the character of his children, so as to be able to adapt his words and manner to the age and peculiarity of each.

E.—REGULATIONS FOR THE ELDER BROTHERS.

1. The elder brother is chosen by the pupils, by secret ballot. He must be chosen from among the names on the register of honor. If the director approves the choice which has been made, he announces the appointment for one month, gives him an embrace, and attaches to his sleeve the lace which is the ensign of his office. The elder brother will merit the title and the confidence bestowed upon him, by exemplary conduct.

2. The elder brother may be re-elected.

3. There are to be two elder brothers in each family.

4. At the first sound of the trumpet the elder brother will rise, will order the rest to rise, will dress himself promptly, assist the young children, and help the chief and sub-chief in the supervision of the dormitory, and of washing and dressing.

5. In the family and workshop, in all the exercises within the house, and wherever he may be, the elder brother will assist his chiefs in supervision, will see that all movements from place to place, within the house, are made with propriety, silence, order, and regularity. He will reprimand pupils committing the slightest error, and will mark in a book used for that purpose, those who do not obey his first admonition.

6. When the family is together, the first elder brother carries the colors, and stands at the right hand of the first rank; the second behind him, in the rear rank. They will dress the ranks of the pupils, and should learn to direct the manœuvres of the platoon exercise.

7. The elder brother will assist the chief and sub-chief in supervision of sports. It is there that he is to occupy himself earnestly in preventing disputes, imprudence, and impropriety, in reproving gross expressions, and forbidding dangerous games.

8. It is the special duty of the elder brother, through the pupil in charge, to maintain the dormitories, the interior of the house, and the sheds, in constant neatness.

9. The elder brother, under direction of the chief and sub-chief, will announce bedtime, and will see that the proper movements are orderly made.

10. The elder brother, who shall see any grave violation of rules, shall immediately report it to the chief of his family, or the foreman of his workshop.

11. An elder brother is designated every day in turn, to assist at the dressing (at the infirmary.)

12. The elder brother is exempt from all extraordinary services.

We can not better close this extended account of the Mettray institution, than by quoting the published opinions of an English and American observer.

M. D. Hill, Esq., recorder of Birmingham, thus speaks of a visit to Mettray in 1848: "In the year 1848 I made my way to Mettray, near Tours, in France. I was received with the utmost kindness, and admitted into the fullest confidence by M. Demetz, the illustrious founder of the institution—a judge who descended from the bench because he could not endure the pain of consigning children to a prison when he knew their *future* would be made worse than their *past*. I examined, or rather cross-examined, each department of the institution, with all that unamiable incredulity which thirty years' practice at the bar may be supposed to have generated; I began with a sort of prejudice—a determined suspicion—fighting my way backward, step by step, until, as proofs advanced, the conclusion was forced upon me that my position was untenable. I found that at Mettray, where they possess and exercise the power of compulsory retention, and where, for desertion, a boy is sent back to the prison from which he had been withdrawn—the amount of reformation reached to what I at first thought the incredible proportion (but which I fully verified) of 85 per cent."

Mr. Coleman, in his European Agriculture, after giving a brief description of Mettray, as an agricultural institution, remarks: "When one looks at the innumerable herds of children, turned, as it were, adrift in a great city, not merely tempted, but actually instructed, stimulated, and encouraged in crime, and observes them gradually gathering in and borne onwards on the swift current with increasing rapidity to the precipice of destruction, until escape becomes almost impossible, how can we enough admire the combined courage, generosity, and disinterestedness, which plunges in that it may rescue some of these wretched victims from that frightful fate which seems all but inevitable? I do not know a more beautiful, and scarcely a more touching, passage in the Holy Scriptures than that which represents the angels in Heaven as rejoicing over a repenting and rescued sinner. It is, indeed, a ministry worthy of the highest and holiest spirits, to which the Supreme Source of all goodness and benevolence has imparted any portion of his Divine nature.

"If we look at this institution even in a more humble and practical view, as affording a good education in the mechanical and agricultural arts, its great utility can not be doubted: and much good seed will be sown here, which, under the blessing of God, is sure to return excellent and enduring fruits.

"I should have said before, that there is connected with the institution a hospital which was a model of cleanliness, good ventilation, and careful attendance; all the services of which were rendered by those indefatigable doers of good, the Sisters of Charity."

AGRICULTURAL AND HORTICULTURAL REFORM SCHOOL

OF

PETIT-BOURG.

The Agricultural school of Petit-Bourg was founded in 1844, by the society for assisting poor children and youth, foundlings, abandoned children and orphans, in France, and especially within the department of the Seine and Seine-et-Oise. The society of which Count Portalis was president, is located at Paris; and the school occupies the ancient property of M. Aquado, at Evry-sur-Seine; which includes a large château and its dependencies, and a park of about 150 acres, bounded partly by walls, partly by the railroad of Corbeil. The estate is beautifully situated upon sloping ground on the river Seine. Water is brought to it by extensive works, from a distance of several miles. It is conducted plentifully into the kitchen-garden, (ten acres, inclosed with high walls and intersected with ten other low walls for montreuil espaliers,) after which it enters large basins which serve for swimming-baths, and to supply the wash-rooms and other domestic uses. Paved or sanded yards, alleys of horse-chesnuts, ploughed land, large and beautiful meadows, and copses, afford opportunities for exercise, sufficient for all purposes.

In the kitchen-garden are a poultry-yard, a small piggery, and a building with eleven front windows, containing good cellars, and in the basement story, apartments used in the working of the kitchen-garden, and for workshops for trades *not noisy*. The first story is occupied by the laundry, the drug shop, the room for convalescents, the infirmary, containing 16 beds and warmed by a stove, and by apartments for sundry persons employed in the institution. In the upper story are several cells for punishment.

Within the same garden, a large building, formerly used as an orangery, has been fitted up for the use of the pupils; it contains a spacious dormitory, which will contain, if necessary, 160 children; there are also two school-rooms, one for the assistants and the other for the pupils, and a wardrobe. The large apartment is arranged to serve successively for a sleeping-room, school-room, refectory, and covered play-ground. By a simple, easy, and rapid manœuvre, all the furniture of the room disappears as if by enchantment; the tables rise close to the ceiling, and while the movable posts supporting them are placed in receptacles where they do not obstruct the room, the hammocks which were near the windows are moved close up to the wall, and those in the middle of the room rise to hide and ventilate themselves in the garret, by means of trap-doors. The idea of this arrangement was borrowed from the agricultural school at Mettray, and is to be found in the school of Val d'Yèvre and in other establishments of the same kind.

The dormitory contains four rows of hammocks, and two aisles, at the ends of which are the more elevated hammocks of the overseers; who by this means can see all that passes in all the beds of the children without trouble. It is lighted during the night, and ventilated by apparatus like that used in most of the prisons of Belgium.

Above the dormitory is a garret which serves for a drying-room; and connected with the same building is a shed, which is used as a repository for farming tools, and for stables and cow-house.

The château is occupied in the basement by apartments for schools and for the family of the director.

The first story is partly occupied by sleeping-rooms for the pupils.

The kitchen and its appurtenances, the pantry, the wash-room, the milk-room, &c., are in the cellars, which are of great extent.

At the time of our visit, (September 2, 1849,) the number of scholars was 130. It was about being increased to 250, by receiving a number of young criminals, acquitted in court as having acted without discernment, but detained under the 66th article of the penal code. This addition has since been made; the young prisoners have taken the place of poor and orphan children, and consequently the establishment at Petit-Bourg must now be reckoned among the reform schools.

The information collected by us relates to the first period of organization; which fact should be recollected in reading what follows.

The scholars at Petit-Bourg may be divided into two classes; 1. poor children and orphans, placed here by the hospitals and asylums at an expense of $24 a year, besides clothes; 2. boarders, paying $70 the first year, and $50 for each subsequent year, always besides clothes. The number of this last class is 30.

The age of admission is generally set at eight years; the time of staying in the school may be as long as 5 years. This length is required, in fact, by the interest both of pulpit and school; by imparting mechanical skill to the former, and thus enabling him to repay part of the expense borne for him by the latter.

The officers of the school are fourteen, viz.:

A director without salary, having only lodging, board and fuel, washing, &c., for himself and family. This place is filled by M. Allier, who may be considered as the real originator and founder of the institution.

A book-keeper,	paid $160.00
A teacher,	" 200.00
An overseer of farming,	" 200.00
A gardener,	" 140.00
A horticulturalist,	paid from $80.00 to $100.00
A cutler and blacksmith,	
A carpenter,	
A wagon-maker,	
Two farm laborers,	
A cook,	

Two overseers, one at $80, and one at $40.00.

Several women are also employed in different capacities, in the laundry, wash-room, infirmary, on the farm, &c.

All these persons receive lodging, board, and general maintenance. They wear no particular costume, and may be married.

The pupils arrive at half-past four in summer, and at half-past five in winter. Their bedtime is, nine in summer, and eight in winter.

Each pupil has his own wardrobe, marked with his number. The dress is a blue blouse for work, a Scotch blouse for Sunday, and gray linen pantaloons in summer. In winter, the pantaloons are of cloth of the color of yellow earth, and under the blouse, a waistcoat with sleeves, of the same material with the pantaloons. Instead of wooden shoes are worn, in summer, laced boots, and in winter, clogs with wooden soles. The cap is of felt, varnished on the top only, and with the words "Petit-Bourg" in front. Each pupil has also a woolen overcoat for severe weather. Recently pantaloons have been introduced, made of two different colors, to prevent escapes as much as possible.

The bedding consists of a hammock, containing a mattress and small pillow of grass, a sack, instead of sheets of linen or cotton, one cotton coverlid in summer, and two in winter. In the infirmary, the pupils have, upon an iron bedstead, a grass mattress, a woolen mattress, a coverlid of cotton and another of gray woolen, two common sheets, and a pillow of feathers.

Besides the dormitory, there are other sleeping rooms, containing from 15 to 20 pupils. Each sleeping-room, is lighted all night, and has its monitor, who is chosen from among the pupils, and charged to preserve order and silence. Besides these overseers, an overseer on guard passes continually through all the sleeping-rooms in succession, during the night.

At eight o'clock in the morning the pupils have a piece of bread for breakfast; at noon and at night, soup, and one dish besides. They have meat three times a week, including Sunday; salt meat twice, and fresh meat once. Their only drink is water.

The elementary instruction given to the pupils comprehends reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic. There is added a little land-surveying, geography, linear design, singing, gymnastics, swimming, and use of fire-engine. There is also a course of agriculture and horticulture for those pupils intending to become farmers.

The religious instruction is given by the priest of the commune, who acts as chaplain. The pupils attend the village church, which is situated within the park inclosure.

As soon as the pupils arrive at the school, they are employed for about a fortnight in the kitchen-gardens, or in the fields, to allow them to gain health and strength, in which they are often deficient. They are then admitted to the workshops; their occupation being selected as nearly as possible with reference to their especial aptitude for it.

Several workshops have been established; of tailors, shoemakers, locksmiths, carpenters, cabinet-makers, house-painters.

According to the agreements made with the foremen of these workshops, the labor of the children is disposed of to them by contract, and they account to the school for it, at a fixed price per day for each pupil.

This price varies of course, according to the nature of the occupation; but it ought during the first year, to amount to an income averaging $16.00 for each pupil, and equal to one-third of the expense of their board and maintenance.

This income the second year, ought to average $46.00; and to cover the entire personal expenses of the pupil.

Afterwards, to the end of the apprenticeship, this income should increase so as to bring to the school a net profit equal at least to the advances of the first year.

A part of this income should be laid up for a reserve fund for the pupil. The amounts applied to this fund should be entered in a book in the saving's bank, and it was supposed that the society would be able to add to it, from beneficiary funds, a greater or less amount, according to the conduct of the pupil in the workshops, his capacity, and his devotion to his fellow-pupils and to the school.

All sums thus entered in the bank-book, should draw interest at 3 per cent., and should not become the property of the pupil unless he have observed punctually the agreement made between the society and his family. Departure before the time agreed upon, besides giving a right of civil action against the family, should deprive the pupil of all his rights to any sum in bank, and of participation in all other favors which the society might bestow upon him at the time of his going, such as wardrobes, tools, pocket-money, nomination of a patron, &c.

These ingenious contrivances to receive the apprenticeship of the pupils, reimbursement of their expenses to the society, and provision for their future welfare, do not appear to have answered the expectations of their originators. The contractors have failed, or have not accepted the conditions attempted to be imposed on them. Consequently, except a few workshops of small importance, working entirely for the institution, agriculture is the principal and almost the only occupation of the pupils. At the time of our visit, the employments were arranged a follows:

Farmers, 86; gardeners, 11; horticulturists, 5; tailors and menders, 10; shoemakers, 3; carpenters, 3; cutlers, 3; painters, 2; cooks, 2; clerks in offices, 3; in infirmary, 1; in steward's office, 1; total, 250.

The domain includes about 250 acres, of which 10 are in meadow; about 100 acres besides are leased, at $30 per year per acre. There have usually been about 25 horned cattle; but a murrian which recently appeared among them has obliged the administration to sell them. There are 12 horses. The most lucrative and most useful branch of cultivation is that of the kitchen-garden, part of whose products are sent to market. The garden itself, which is a large one, seems to be well laid out. Irrigation is practiced in it, as by the market-gardeners at Paris. The sale of flowers, fruit, and legumes, furnish a principal revenue of the establishment. There are handsome green-houses, containing over 14,000 pots.

The moral and disciplinary regulations of the school, are described in the report of M. Allier, the director, to the general assembly of May 11th, 1845, at the Hotel de Ville of Paris, contain some excellent provisions. Unfortunately the absence of the director at the time of our visit, and the shortness of our stay, rendered it impossible for us to ascertain whether this excellent system had been exactly followed. But below is such information as we have extracted from the above-mentioned report, or received from the assistant who directed our visit.

The pupils are classed according to their conduct, in four divisions, viz.:

Division of probation.	Division of reward.
" " amelioration.	" " punishment.

As a means of stimulating their emulation while at work, a sub-classification has been adopted, which consists in arranging the pupils, in each workshop, into first, second, and third divisions. Each of these divisions has a little flag of a particular color. To belong to the first division is the highest ambition of the members of the other divisions. The same amount of work considering their relative strength, having been distributed to the pupils, and the time necessary for performing it being carefully calculated, the pride of each little group is set in action, and there results a pleasant strife to conquer in the game, which is silent as a game of chess, and as absorbing, and which, besides the honor of victory, does not lack material inducements; for a certain prize is delivered at the end of every month to the first division, and encouragement to the second.

"It is pleasant," says the reporter, "to see with what earnestness and good-will the children ply the plane, the hammer, the file, the spade, the rake, and look around to see where their comrades and adversaries are; for not only is there a struggle between two divisions, but also between the individual members of each division, for the first, second, &c., place in the division. The first in each division is the standard bearer.

"In this manner the hours pass rapidly away without punishment. At the end of the task, joy shines in the eyes of the victors, and the shame of the vanquished seems impatient for the revenge which shall give them the standard or the place of honor.

"At each judiciary meeting, good marks are also given to those who have done their work quickest and best, and bad ones to those who have labored ill or slowly. It often happens that the children gain an hour or two, by finishing their tasks before the appointed hour; this time they may dispose of at pleasure, in play, in working in other shops, in reading or drawing, &c.; but they usually ask for more work, or kindly assist their slower comrades, for the purpose of preventing the bad marks to which the latter are liable; for where the honorable rivalry of labor ends, there brotherly love begins.

"This system, which puts into action the powerful motives of interest and pride, while it preserves fraternal friendship, needs no commentaries. It is simple and true, because it is taken from nature. To judge of it, all that is necessary is to look at one's own heart and to question one's self."

The pupils assemble once a month for the special purpose of electing by ballot the monitor-general of the school and the monitors of the separate workshops. This operation is performed without any intriguing, and it has been remarked that the best scholars are chosen unanimously, or by an immense majority. The director, however, reserves a veto upon this choice; although he has very seldom been obliged to use it. The appointment of monitors by their peers is copied from the appointment of elder brothers at Mettray; as is also the appointment of a jury to try offenses committed by the pupils. The pupils usually accuse themselves, and affix, according to circumstances, the maximum or minimum of punishment. These spontaneous condemnations are submitted to the approval of their brothers the monitors, who revoke or confirm them; and are then carried before a supreme tribunal, of the officers, assistants and foremen of workshops, who give a judgment in the last resort.

"Although a little new and prompt," says the report formerly quoted, "our justice is none the less real justice, and tends daily to lessen the number of culprits and of those condemned more than once. It has this advantage; that the guilty can not claim to be innocent, nor to be too severely punished; for both monitors and we ourselves most often interfere to mitigate penalties, and sometimes to pardon, limiting ourselves to a reprimand.

"Meanwhile, if (which is very rare) any pupil denies the accusation brought against him, then public information becomes the duty of all pupils having cognizance of the fact charged; that no culprit may escape who aggravates his offense by a lie, and that no innocent person may be punished. In this case an inquest is held, before which the overseers and witnesses are heard. Accusers and defenders arise for the occasion among the pupils, and from monitors and assistants who decline voting upon the judgment pronounced in first instance by the monitors, and finally by the tribunal of assistants."

The punishments are as follows, in the order of their severity:

1. Simple reprimand.

2. Detention, with or without labor, from the recreations of the week.
3. Detention from the recreations of the Sunday.
4. Dry bread for one or more meals.
5. Passage from a higher to a lower division.
6. Lighted cell, with labor.
7. Dark cell, without labor.
8. Erasure of name from register of honor.
9. Loss for one or more months of votership and of eligibility.
10. Inability for one or more months to receive letters of pardon.
11. Inability for one or more months to partake or be present at distributions of alms.
12. Inability to see and embrace one's parents at the visit next after condemnation.
13. Inability for one or more months to carry the standard.
14. Inability for one or more months to assist sick companions.
15. Inability during one or more months to be chosen to assist at family festivals.

All these punishments are dreaded most on account of the shame accompanying *them*. It is likewise to be noticed that the severest are those which are of a purely moral character. Expulsion from the school is only inflicted upon pupils considered wholly incorrigible.

There is a similar gradation of rewards, based upon the same principle, as follows:

1. Honorable mention. This is a public complimentary notice, addressed to the pupil deserving it, to encourage him to do still better in future.
2. Passage to a higher division.
3. Registration in the register of honor. This registration is for two months; and is the privilege of the division of reward only.
4. Encouragements. These are small books.
5. A crown over the place occupied by the pupil, in the school, or shop, or both, as he has deserved it in one, or the other, or both.
6. Tools of honor. These are offered and gained as prizes.
7. Prizes. These are usually books useful in the occupation of the pupil, moral tales, history, books of piety, &c.
8. Becoming standard-bearer of division.
9. Selection by their comrades to attend the family festivals. Once a month, the officers, assistants, and foremen, meet in the evening of Sunday around a table frugally furnished, as usual, but with one additional dish. The monitors are, *ex officio*, invited. After the desert, the singing master assembles the pupils present, and sings with them religious, moral, or national songs. After the singing, all separate, promising to endeavor to make the worst scholars worthy of attending at these modest feasts.
10. Letters of pardon. These letters, which are only given with great reserve, empower those holding them to pardon pupils undergoing punishment, except in certain grave cases, of which the director is judge.
11. Permission to watch with the sick. This also is a rare privilege, and cultivates among the pupils sentiments of benevolence and of fraternal affection.
12. Honor of carrying and bestowing the alms of the school. The alms-chest is replenished in several ways. 1. One Sunday a month, all the officers, assistants, foremen, and pupils, go without meat, and the consequent saving is deposited in the alms-chest. 2. Once a month there is taken from the amount credited to each pupil in the savings-bank, 4 cents; that is, 48 cents a year. A monthly collection is also made among the officers, assistants, and foremen, and the amount, along with that taken from the deposits for the pupils, also put in the chest.

With this money the pupils of the division of reward, or those who have performed some laudable action, are enabled to go, on the first Sunday of each month, to carry to the aged poor of the village, sometimes garments, sometimes bedding, sometimes medicine, but never money.

Nothing has been neglected which might awaken the moral sense in the children of the school, or contribute to elevate their souls. For the same purpose the walls in different places are covered with such phrases as the following:

Silence.

God sees us.
Idleness impoverishes and degrades.
He who will not work should not eat.
Labor enriches and honors.
Let us be brothers.
Benevolence elevates man.
Children, grow up by labor. Men, some time labor will make you great.
Religion is goodness, every where and always.
To love the poor is to love God.

Evening and morning, after the usual prayer, the pupils address another to God for their instructors and benefactors.

Once a year a mass is sung for the repose of the souls of such instructors or benefactors as are dead; after which ceremony, flowers are laid upon the graves of dead pupils.

There was much difficulty, particularly at the beginning, in finding competent and active assistants, and such as would be devoted to the success of the undertaking. Frequent changes in consequence occasioned great embarrassments. To encourage the agents of the school, they were given an interest in its profits, by reserving to them a percentage upon the produce of labor and of the workshops. The amount thus voluntarily distributed is retained by the society, and entered in a book called the book of division of profits. No one is permitted, on any pretext, to draw any or all of these funds; and if any assistant or foreman leaves the school improperly, or is sent off for ill conduct, the amount so credited to him on book becomes the property of the other assistants and foremen, being divided equally among them.

A second book, called the savings-bank book, is also kept for entering the retention of 5 per cent. on all salaries. It is not permitted to draw this deposit; but at the departure of the assistant or foreman, for whatever reason, it is paid to him, unless retained by the society as indemnity for damages due from him, for this book is kept to habituate the assistants to economy, and to put a sort of caution-money into the hands of the society. The same use is made of funds entered upon the book of division of profits, in case of malversation or loss. The amounts entered on the savings-bank book pay 3 per cent. to the depositor. The sums entered in these two books, together with the savings which some of the assistants are able to lay by, form considerable reserve funds.

Saturday evening every week, all the officers, assistants, and foremen, meet in a family council, and consider all the praiseworthy or reprehensible actions of the pupils under their orders. By this means no fault, however small, and no good action, however insignificant, can happen during the week, in school-room, court, workshop, dormitory, or play-ground, without being noticed. While the teacher for instance, praises a scholar for his conduct and progress in study, the foreman of his workshop may find him stupid and lazy. By such contradictions attention is drawn to the child; all watch him to better advantage, and after a few weeks of study and minute observation, the true character of the child is discovered, and often his good qualities are brought out even by means of his faults.

This meeting has another purpose, to arrange a line of conduct for each pupil, to be followed out next day at an assembly called the meeting of emulation; at which the officers, assistants, and foremen of workshops are present, as well as the pupils and visitors. At this meeting are performed the duties of the jury above-mentioned, and rewards and punishments are distributed. The idea of this meeting was copied from the school of Mettray, which, although there seems to be some unwillingness to avow it, has served as the type of the organization not only of the school of Petit-Bourg, but also of most other establishments of the same kind erected in France within a few years.

Petit-Bourg has not a school of foremen like that at Mettray, but it endeavors in a similar manner to form among the pupils a seminary for assistants who may successively fill vacant places.

The patronage of the scholars on leaving the school is nearly on the same basis in the two establishments. A patron is named for each pupil, who, in concert with the establishment, endeavors to find him a good situation.

To understand the financial condition of the school of Petit-Bourg, we have examined the accounts and estimates of the few last years, and have arrived at the following results:

In 1845, for 118 pupils, the expenses were $15,032.80; being $127.57 each, per year, and $0.25 each, per day.

In 1846, for 123 pupils, the expenses were $17,631.12, after deducting income of farming and workshops. The items of this expense are as follows:

Board of pupils,	$00.10.4	per day each,	$4,661.08
Clothing,	12.48	“ year, “	1,535.03
Bedding,	1.24.2	“ “ “	152.73
Washing,	1.95.2	“ “ “	240.07
Fuel,	58.2	“ “ “	71.74
Light,	2.93.8	“ “ “	361.32
Mending clothes,	5.02	“ “ “	617.76
School expenses,	39	“ “ “	47.95
Sundries,			80.21
Rent, taxes, insurance,			1,554.41
Repairs, &c., furniture and buildings,			746.65
Expenses of offices and management,			2,678.05
Salaries and maintenance of assistants,			6,880.38
Entire expense,			19,627.38
Income from cultivation and shops,			1,996.26
Net expense,			17,631.12

The expense for each pupil, during 1846, therefore was $143.34; or $0.39 per day.

In 1847, the estimates for an average number of 125 pupils presented the following valuations:

Salaries and maintenance of officers, &c.,		$6,720.00
Maintenance of pupils, $60 each,		7,500.00
Fuel, lights, washing,		800.00
Taxes, repairs of buildings,		640.00
Expense of management, freight, traveling,		2,320.00
Shops, cattle, manure, &c.,		1,000.00
Contingencies,		400.00
		19,380.00
Receipts,	Kitchen-garden, $1,000.00 Tilled land, woods, &c., 1,000.00	2,000.00
Net expense,		17,280.00

The expense per pupil, in 1848, was therefore $139.04, or $0.38 per day, not including rent.

In 1849, the expense was diminished by the increased number of pupils to $94.67; or $0.25 each, per day. The school purchased the estate of Petit-Bourg, in 1846, for $54,000, raised by the grand lottery established for the school at that time, the net accruing from which, was more than $100,000.

Connected with the prison of "La Roquette," in Paris, is an institution called the "Patronage Society," which has been formed voluntarily by benevolent individuals. Its object is to guide and provide for young prisoners on their liberation. Each boy has a patron who exercises an influence over him, even during his confinement, by counsel and exhortation. On his being set at liberty, his patron comes or sends for him, and places him in some situation for which he has fitted himself in the workshop of the penitentiary. Instead of being thrust out of the gates with rags on their backs, with which they entered them, and with just sufficient money to lead them into temptation, as was formerly the case, the poor lads are at present furnished with decent clothes, and gain at once an employment and a respectable livelihood. Their patrons visit them frequently, superintend their conduct, and by the affectionate sympathies they show them, encourage and confirm them in a virtuous course of life. They call them their children, and the reciprocal affection which often springs up between the little outcasts and their protectors is really very beautiful. Numerous cases have occurred where youthful vagabonds and thieves have become exemplary characters through the parental kindness of the gentlemen who have adopted them. One instance is mentioned, in the society's reports, of a former inmate of "La Roquette" having formed an attachment to an amiable and industrial girl, when not having money to meet the expenses of his marriage, his patron gave him the means, was present himself at the wedding, and furnished the lodging of the new-married couple with chairs, tables, a bedstead, and some linen. The most unequivocal proof of the value of the society's exertions consists in this,—that before its existence, out of 217 youths that were liberated between the years 1831 and 1833, 99 were recommitted several times and for grave offenses; whereas since the association has entered upon its mission, out of 269 lads taken under their charge only 51 were again sentenced to a second term of imprisonment. And it is to be observed that the 99 recommittals above specified were merely those which took place in Paris, under the real names of the offenders; how many more happened in the provinces, and under false names, can not be ascertained. But all who are positively recommitted, whilst under the superintendence of the society are known, as they can not quit their situations without the fact being communicated to their patrons. A report of the society affirms that of those who have been guilty of no fresh transgression against the law, 58 were not only laborious, economical, and submissive to their masters, but join to those qualities virtues which must gain them general esteem; that 124, without being so remarkable, are nevertheless excellent young men, and good workmen, who give every kind of satisfaction to their employers and protectors; so that out of 269 juvenile delinquents there are 182 thoroughly reformed, who are the joy and glory of the society.

AGRICULTURAL REFORM SCHOOL

OF

RUYSSELEDE, BELGIUM.

THE following account of one of the most interesting educational institutions of Belgium, is mainly a translation from a Report* by M. Ducpetiaux, Inspector General of Prisons and Charitable Institutions, to the Minister of Justice, on Agricultural Colonies, Rural Schools, and Schools of Reform, for indigent, vagrant and mendicant children and youth, in 1851.

1. *Purpose of the Reform Schools; preliminary measures; basis of organization.*

The attention of government has long been directed to the condition of the poor youth, beggars, and vagrants, who are sheltered in the alms-houses and imprisoned by the courts. From the misfortunes which have of late years fallen upon the population both of East and West Flanders, the number of these children and youth has rapidly increased. According to a return made in 1848, this increase, for the three years preceding, was as follows:

YOUTH REGISTERED.	1845.	1846.	1847.	TOTAL.
In prisons,	2,575	5,886	9,352	17,813
In alms-houses,	1,823	2,914	3,697	8,434
Total,	4,398	8,800	13,049	26,247

Thus, in the short space of three years, 26,247 children and youth of both sexes were registered as admitted into the prisons and alms-houses. There are undoubtedly repetitions in this number; the same children are recorded twice, thrice, or even oftener, on the same register. But on the other hand this estimate did not include children admitted into prisons with their parents; numbering, during the same period, some thousands.

It is to be remarked, besides, that the principal alms-houses, being entirely filled during the crisis of distress, were obliged to limit or even to suspend admission. Hence a great part of the increase in the number imprisoned. Shut out from the alms-houses, many of these unfortunate people, to escape from hunger, cold, and death, asked admission into the prisons, and even committed small misdemeanors in order to gain the right of such admission.

So wretched a spectacle has shown the necessity of energetic measures to oppose a barrier to this invasion of poverty, and to snatch this mass of unfortunate youth from influences which, by perpetuating their degradation and their misery, expose society to incessant perils and increasing expense.

The department of justice prepared a plan, chiefly with this design, for the establishment of special reform schools, for poor youth, beggars, and vagrants of both sexes. This plan was presented to the Chamber of Representatives, Nov. 17, 1846; and was thoroughly examined by a committee of the central section, (*section centrale*,) which reported on it, May 6, 1847. The government prepared a new plan, based on this report, which it submitted to the Chamber of Representatives,

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* Colonies Agricoles, Ecoles Rurales et Ecoles de Reforme pour les indigents, les mendiants et les vagabonds, et spécialement pour les enfants des deux sexes, en Suisse, en Allemagne, en France, en Angleterre, dans les Pays-Bas et en Belgique. Rapport addressé a M. Tesch, Ministre de la Justice, par M. Ducpetiaux, Inspecteur Général des prisons, &c. Bruxelles, 1851.

Feb. 28, 1848. This having been thoroughly discussed by both Chambers, was passed into a law concerning alms-houses and reform schools, April 3, 1848.

The fifth article of that law enacts that the regular alms-houses shall be used exclusively for the reception of adult paupers, beggars, and vagrants. That the government shall erect special establishments for young paupers, beggars, and vagrants of both sexes, under sixteen years of age.

These establishments shall be so organized as to employ the boys, as much as possible, in agriculture, and to instruct them in such labor as may be profitably practiced in the fields. The two sexes shall always be placed in distinct and separate establishments.

By article 7, the expense of support to be paid by the communes for the youth admitted into these establishments is never to exceed, for the communes of each province, the expense of support of the inmates of the alms-houses of each province.

The organization, management, and discipline of these establishments are determined by royal decrees, which are not to issue without hearing the permanent deputations of the provinces in which they are situated.

Six hundred thousand francs (about $120,000) is appropriated for the land and buildings for these establishments, and for fittings, furniture, and other necessary expenses.

The government is to make an annual report to the legislature, of all action under the above law, and of the condition of the institutions established in conformity with it.

Government engaged actively in the execution of the law of the 3d of April, 1848. The necessary preparatory investigations and operations occupied a portion of that year; and on the 8th of March, 1849, a royal decree ordered the establishment of two reform schools in the commune of Ruysselede, (West Flanders;) one to receive 500 boys, and the other for 400 girls and young children of from two to seven years old.

Separate buildings are to be used for these two institutions, so as strictly to preserve the separation of the sexes. These, however, are to be so arranged as to admit of a common direction, to combine their labor economically, and to render certain mutual services, so as to reduce the expense of management and housekeeping.

The former of these establishments may be regarded as definitely organized; it will soon be able to receive its entire complement. The erection of the second depends at present upon the extension of the estate, of which we shall have occasion to speak below.

2. *General arrangement of the agricultural reform school for boys.*

This establishment occupies the premises of a sugar-house erected some years since, which came into the hands of the government, in the beginning of 1849, and has been altered and enlarged for its present use. The farm which belonged with them has been so much enlarged, as to bring it into convenient business communication with an estate of some 200 hectares, (about 500 acres;) a road has been built to open a direct communication with the canal, and with the railroad from Gand to Bruges; the transhipment and transport of manure has been facilitated by the construction of a wharf and of a large cistern at the edge of the canal; lastly, a steam-engine of five horse power has been erected for milling grain, raising water, heating the main building, and cooking for the workmen and cattle: arrangements are in progress for connecting with it an elevator, a thrashing machine, a straw-cutter, a turnip-cutter, &c. All these machines will economize labor, and will enable the managers to employ to the best advantage the strength and skill of the laborers, instead of employing them in turning wheels and in other purely mechanical and monotonous labor.

3. *Arrangement of the buildings of the school and farm.*

The buildings of the reform school are regularly arranged, and may be considered under two heads, viz., the school proper, and the farm.

1. The school comprehends all the necessary buildings for the offices the operations, and the accommodation of the officers; which occupy the two wings toward the road. The central building contains, in the lower story, the dining-room of the pupils, furnished with tables seating 500 children, two school-rooms, the principal office for business and the dining-room of the officers; in the second story,

four large dormitories, each furnished with a hundred and twenty-four cots, a superintendent's chamber, and wash-stands for the pupils. In the garret is a large reservoir filled by the steam-engine, which distributes water to all parts of the establishment. The rooms on the first floor are warmed by a furnace.

To the right of the central building, facing from the road, are the kitchen of the pupils, the bakery, the steam-engine with its appurtenances, the pantry and the store-rooms; to the left, the kitchen of the officers, a plunge-bath or swimming-bath, baths, a fire-pump, and in the second story, the infirmary of the pupils with its dependencies. Lastly, the play-ground of the pupils is bounded on three sides by a building of one story, over which are ample granaries; in this building are the workshops, the forge, carpenter's shop, spinning and weaving rooms, the tailor's, shoemaker's and straw-weaver's shops, &c., as well as a temporary wash-house, to serve until the completion of the girls' school. The chapel stands at one corner; it is built in a style at once simple and elegant; and near it, as in the reform school at Mettray, is a small cell for such young beggars and vagrants as are sent to the school for punishment, and for the pupils in such aggravated or exceptional cases as require such quarantine or discipline.

2. The farm buildings, standing near the school, comprehend a dwelling-house for the farmer and the farm laborers, stables for from 80 to 100 head of cattle, a dairy, two stables for 12 horses, two piggeries, a sheep-fold, a poultry-yard, two covered receptacles for manure, a roomy barn, and a large carriage house for vehicles and farming tools, over which are lofts for hay. A watering place for the cattle, and large cisterns for liquid manure and for drainings complete these arrangements: which on the whole and in detail, furnish a real model farm.

All the buildings which we have enumerated, together with the two court-yards of the school and the enclosure around which stand the mills and wood-houses, form nearly a regular parallelogram, of 135 metres long, and 200 wide, (about 450 feet by 650.)

4. *Extent and division of the estate.*

The property of Ruysselede contains 126 hectares, 89 ares, 10 centiares, (about 320 acres;) it forms an isosceles triangle with the vertex to the northwest and the base to the southeast. It is bounded on one side by the new road laid out by the establishment, and on the others by public roads, so that it is quite separated from the estates adjoining. It is divided into squares, chess-board-wise, generally containing from 1 to 3 hectares (2½ to 7½ acres) each, and separated by rows and avenues of larch, fir, and wild cherry, which last serve for cart-paths, &c. The soil is a gray sand, without any mixture of clay, and therefore light, friable, and easily worked. But it also, to become productive, requires careful cultivation, and large quantities of manure, especially liquid manure. For this reason the authorities of the school have concluded an arrangement with the jail (maison de force) at Gand, for the annual delivery of about 10,000 hectolitres (about 4,200 hogsheads) of solid and liquid manure.

5. *Measures of organization; decrees and instructions.*

The department of justice, which has jurisdiction over the reform school, has successively taken different measures for their organization. The royal decree of March 8, 1849, determines the number, duties, and salaries of the officers, and appoints a committee of from three to five members of the legislature for the inspection and supervision of the reform schools. The decree of May 7, 1849, completed this arrangement by determining the mode of filling vacancies and the jurisdiction of the committee.

The continued imprisonment by the commissioner of beggary and vagrancy causing much inconvenience, the decree of February 28, 1850, ordered their immediate transfer to the reform schools, where they will serve out their terms in separate quarters.

A royal decree of the same date with the last, extends the provisions of the decree of December 14, 1848, for the assistance of liberated convicts, to young paupers, beggars, and vagrants, at their dismissal from the reform schools. There is to be opened in each of these establishments a register of the offers which may be made by farmers and other employers, to hire, on certain conditions, such of the pupils as may possess the requisite qualifications.

The ministerial circular of March 2, 1850, calls the attention of public prosecutors to the purpose of the reform schools, and furnishes invariable rules for the arrangement of transfers to, and among them. Another circular, of the same date, sends similar instructions to the governors of provinces.

Lastly, the royal decree of July 3, 1850, specifies the conditions and forms of admission to the reform schools, and of dismission from them.

By this decree, and by the law of April 3, 1848, the reform schools are especially designed.

1. For young paupers, under sixteen years of age, who present themselves voluntarily for admission, with a certificate from the municipal authority of their place of settlement, or from the municipal authority of the neighborhood where they happen to be, or where their usual residence is.

2. For young paupers holding a certificate from the permanent deputation, from the governor of the province, or from the commissary of the district (arrondissement) in which the place of settlement of such paupers, their residence, or casual locality, may be.

3. For children and youth sentenced by the commissioner of beggary or vagrancy.

4. For children acquitted by him, but retained under the —— penal code to be educated, up to a certain age, in a house of correction.

5. For children not guilty of any misdemeanor, indented with farmers, artisans, or charitable institutions.

6. *Numbers; entries, &c.*

The first pupils entered in March, 1849, shortly after the purchase of the property and the commencement of the preparatory work. There were admitted at first 19 children from the alms-house of Bruges, then 15 from that of Combre; a little after these were admitted 63 young beggars and vagrants acquitted by the courts as having acted without knowledge, but detained under the 66th article of the penal code, who had been placed in the juvenile penitentiary of Saint Hubert, for want of any proper receptacle. These, with 24 received singly during the same time, make a total of 121 pupils on the 1st of January, 1850.

From that time to January 1st, 1851, the number has been as in the following table:

Acquitted by the courts, but detained by law in a house of correction, …	92
Sentenced on application of communes, …	156
Sent by benevolent institutions, …	3
Total, …	251

Young paupers entering the reform schools voluntarily, are kept for at least six months the first time; and for at least one year, if they have been in the school before, or if they have before been inmates of an alms-house. At the end of that time, the civil authority of their place of settlement, their family, or any responsible person, may claim their dismission, upon engaging to provide for their education, apprenticeship, and support. Demands for such purpose are to be addressed to the permanent deputation of the council of the province to which such pupils belong; directly, if made by the civil authority of their place of settlement; if by their family, or by strangers, then through the civil authority which would have jurisdiction in the case. The deputation determines upon the security offered, and authorizes or refuses the dismissal of the pupils. In the absence of any claims made as above, the deputation, after consultation with the inspecting committee and with the director of the schools, may authorize the dismissal of the pupil, provided he is in a condition to earn his own living. The dismissal of children and youth sentenced by the commissioner of beggary or of vagrancy, is ordered by the governor of the province in which is their place of settlement, or if that can not be found, by the minister of justice.

Such dismission always depends on these conditions, viz.: that the pupil has remained at least two years in the reform school, if sent there for the first time; and at least four years, if he is an old offender; and, that he is in a condition to earn his own living, or at least is claimed by the civil authority of his place of settlement, by his family, or by some responsible person, under a guaranty that he shall not return to begging or vagrancy, and that he shall be furnished either with work or with sufficient support. The acceptance or refusal of this guaranty is left to the governor and to the minister of justice, respectively. The minister or the governor may always authorize a dismissal before the time fixed, if their be special reasons for it. Before such authorization, however, the minister or governor is to advise with the committee of inspection, the director of the establishment, and the civil authority of the place of settlement of the pupil.

The time of dismission of children acquitted by the commissioner of beggary and vagrancy, is determined by the sentence under which they are placed in the school.

There are even children in these establishments, under the decree of September 29, 1848, in order that it may not be rendered necessary, by their bad conduct or otherwise, to imprison them again. The authorities of the reform schools, in such cases, are to suggest such arrangements as the circumstances shall indicate.

The pupils at leaving the schools, are informed by the director what consequences will follow their recommitment to the school.

The committee of inspection of the reform schools returns to the minister of justice, at the beginning of each year, a list of those pupils whose term has passed the limits fixed above, with the reasons of such prolongation. The minister, if proper, then orders their dismission. The committee also returns annually to the minister a list of the names of those pupils who have arrived at their eighteenth year, with any opinions or advice in the premises.

Among the 18 pupils who left in 1850, there are,

2 who ran away, one eight days after entering, and the other after a stay of about three months. The conduct of this last had been satisfactory, and he appeared to take pleasure in the care bestowed on him. One Sunday he received a visit from his parents, and the next day he disappeared. He has not been discovered up to the present time, although active search was made; 2 who were sent home at the end of eight days, as the civil authority of their respective places of settlement was unwilling to consent to their final admission; 1, who was sent to the alms-house at Bruges, on account of serious disease. The following shows the length of the abode of 13 others in the school: two for 1 year, 7 months, 15 days; two for 1 year, 4 months, 7 days: one for 1 year, 3 months, 3 days; two for 1 year, 2 months, 16 days; two for 1 year, 1 month, 20 days; two for 1 year, 15 days; one for 11 months, 15 days; one for 8 months, 20 days: the average time is 1 year, 2½ months.

At their departure, two were 16 years old; seven were 15 years old; two were 13 years old; two were 10 years old; two had been sentenced by the commissioner of beggary, and were returned to their parents under the guaranty of the local authority of their communes; the 11 others belong to the class of children detained under the 66th article of the penal code. They were claimed immediately upon the expiration of their judgment term, by the communes of their places of settlement; 8 were taken by their parents, under the supervision of the local authority; the other 3 were placed under the care of the committees of employment (comités de patronage) of Gand, of Ninove, and of Audenarde.

8. *Age of the pupils.*

The age of the 269 pupils, January 1, 1851, was as follows:

21 aged less than 10 years.
45 " from 10 to 12 years.
94 " " 12 to 14 "
80 " " 14 to 16 "
29 " over 16 years.

9. ***Civil and social condition.***

In respect to their civil condition they may be classed as follows:

28 illegitimate children.
42 without father or mother.
43 " father.
88 " mother.
64 having both parents.
3 foundlings.
1 abandoned child.

Such is the social position of the unfortunate youths; most of them deprived of family relations; and the parents of those who have them are, for the most part, to be found in the alms-houses or prisons.

10. *Committee of supervision.*

The supervision and inspection of the school are entrusted to a committee of three, by the decree of March 8, 1849. These three gentlemen, who have contributed powerfully from the beginning to the success of the school, by their zeal and their efforts, are the Chevalier Ernest Peers-Ducpetiaux, Frederic Van der Bruggen, and Henri Kervyn, provincial inspector of primary instruction at Gand.

11. *Persons employed, salaries, emoluments.*

These are,

	Francs.		Dollars.		Francs.		Dollars.
1 director, ...	4.000	about	800	1 gardener, ...	400	about	80
1 chaplain, ...	1,200	"	240	1 assistant gardener, .	300	"	60
1 treasurer, ...	1,200	"	240	4 laborers, for teams, stables, and farm work, at 200 fr., ..	800	"	160
1 secretary, ...	600	"	120				
1 supernumerary, ...							
1 physician, ...	600	"	120	1 cook, ...	200	"	40
2 teachers, at 600 fr., ...	1,200	"	240	1 miller and baker, and 1 housekeeper, both, ...	250	"	50
1 chief overseer, ...	600	"	120				
3 overseers, at 450 fr., ..	1,350	"	270				
1 occasional overseer, ..	400	"	80				
1 head farmer, ...	600	"	120	Total, 21	13,700 fr.		$2,740

These officers receive, besides their salaries, the emoluments specified in the —— decree of March 8, 1850, viz.: board, lights, fuel, washing, furniture, and medical attendance in sickness, except that the director, who keeps house does not receive board, washing, or furniture. The overseers have, besides, a uniform valued at 50 francs, (10 dollars,) and the laborers, each a suit of clothes valued at 20 francs, (4 dollars.) There are two tables for the officers; one for the officers proper, presided over by the chaplain, the other for the farm laborers, at the head of which is the farmer. All those employed, except the director, are single; a condition rendered necessary by the arrangements of the establishment, and the impossibility of accommodating families in it. At some future time it will be proper to examine the practicability of preparing some tenements for families. Having started in the present footing, (á partir du présent exercice,) there will be room for the employment of some additional officers, and particularly for an increase in the number of overseers, proportionable to that in the number of pupils. These overseers should be chosen, by preference, from among practical mechanics, and should have the direction of some of the workshops. The remaining shops may be entrusted, as at present, to the oversight of paid workmen; such as those whom the establishment has already engaged as a locksmith and blacksmith, a machinist and fireman for the steam-engine, a wheel-wright, &c.

The officers, before receiving a definite nomination or engagement, are taken on trial, and undergo a sort of noviciate, which test their zeal and their aptitude. This plan has succeeded perfectly.

12. *Plan for erecting school of foremen.*

During the investigations pending the establishment of the reform school, it had been suggested to connect with it a special school for foremen, like that of Mettray and at the Rauhe-Haus at Hamburg; but it was abandoned as difficult, complicated, and expensive. But although it has not been thought practicable to gather from elsewhere the material for a seminary of capable and faithful workmen, it has been understood that the institution would endeavor to educate within itself such subordinate agents as it might require. This furnishes an opening to those pupils who may be distinguished by good conduct or capacity; and already, after scarcely eighteen months of operations, there took place, at the beginning of the present year, the formal emancipation of one of them, a young man of activity and intelligence, and quick at all kinds of work, who has taken his place among the laborers upon the farm. Others will surely follow his example, and under its stimulus will be ambitious of the honor of serving such an establishment where they have found (so to speak) a new existence, and the certain prospect of ultimate success.

13. *General dietetics.*

The diet of the pupils has been assimilated as much as possible to that of agricultural laborers. It is simple but abundant; plain, but healthful.

14. *Provisions.*

The food is furnished according to a bill of fare at the average expense, according to the price current of about 21 centimes (4 cents) a day for each pupil. This expense is certainly less than in any other similar establishment, in this or any other country. The pupils nevertheless have meat twice a week; for which purpose hogs are killed on the farm, and their flesh served up alternately with beef. The bread is rye, unbolted. The grain, potatoes, legumes, milk, and butter, are the productions of the establishment, which diminish the amount of actual expenditure. With the extension and improvement of the present cultivation, these crops will increase, and ultimately, when there shall be as much land under cultivation as will be required by the full number of pupils, it is to be hoped that the establishment will itself furnish all the essentials for its own consumption.

15. *Clothing*.

Each pupil receives at entering the following articles: 5 shirts, 2 pair pantaloons, 2 pair working pantaloons, 1 vest, 2 blouses, 2 neck cloths, 2 pocket handkerchiefs, 1 belt, 1 cap, 1 straw hat, 2 pair understockings, 1 pair shoes, 2 pair wooden shoes, (sabots,) 2 towels, 1 comb, and 2 brushes, (1 for clothes, 1 for shoes.) The expense of this wardrobe does not exceed from 32 to 35 francs, ($6.50 to $7.00,) according to size. Most of these articles have hitherto been furnished from the workshops in the jail of Gand; but as soon as the workshops of the reform school are organized, it will make and finish, as far as possible, all the necessary clothing and bedding for its inmates. The tailors' and menders' shop is already in operation; even the youngest of the children make straw hats; the spinning and weaving shops are begun, and will be in action before the end of the winter. The shoemakers' shop is in a like state of forwardness. The only difficulty is in finding foremen capable of directing the young operatives; but the activity of the director will undoubtedly soon remedy it.

16. *Sleeping arrangements*.

The bedsteads are of iron, with a press for clothing; the bedding consists of a straw mattress, a pillow, a pair of linen sheets, and one, two, or three cotton coverlids, according to the season. The bedsteads, which are manufactured at the jail of Gand, cost only 22 to 23 francs ($4.50 to $4.75) each, including the press, which is also of iron. They are arranged in four rows in the dormitories. These are lighted all night, and besides that, the overseer can see from his chamber, at a glance, all that passes; a night watch has been organized. An overseer, attended by two pupils, passes through all the premises, and especially through the dormitories, to see that all is in good order.

17. *Fire and light*.

These are put upon the most economical footing. The entire first story of the central building, including the eating room and the schools, is warmed by the steam-engine. Lamps are used for lights, and the colewort (colza) cultivated on the farm furnishes part of the oil. The temporary wash-room is managed by pupils, in anticipation of the organization of the school for girls, who will take charge of the washing and laundry departments of both establishments.

18. *Health*.

The healthy condition of the school gives a testimony in favor of the regimen introduced. Many of the children, at their entrance, were infected with diseases more or less severe, with rickets or scrofula. But both diseases and symptoms have rapidly disappeared before pure air, field labor, and regular living. This is so true, that it is easy at a glance to distinguish by their appearance pupils lately admitted from those who have been inmates for a longer time. The latter are generally strong and active; they are rosy, and their whole appearance denotes health.

In 1849 no infirmary was opened; in fact, there was no case of distinct disease, and consequently no death; and the medical department, including the visits of the inspecting physician, cost only 95fr., 34c., (about $20.00.)

In 1850, from a number of pupils averaging 171, there were only 12 admissions to the infirmary. The number of days under treatment was 72, giving an average of 6 days to each patient. The whole expense for drugs and materia medica of all kinds, both for the pupils and for such laborers as were hurt or bruized during the building, was only 48fr. 94c., (about $10.00.) There was no death. Children sick with severe or incurable diseases, and consequently unfit for all labor, are sent to the infirmary of the alms-house at Bruges, by an arrangement made with that institution. The reform school pays for their support and treatment at the rate of 50 centimes (about 10 cents) a day each.

19. *Moral training*.

The moral training has been the object of more paternal care, if possible, than the physical. It has been supposed that the poor children sent to the reform school needed food for the soul, no less than for the body; that it was designed not only to snatch them from misery, disease, and death, but to change their habits, to correct their vices, to teach them their duties, to relieve them of their almost hereditary degradation, and to elevate them in their own estimation, as well as in that of society. Notwithstanding the difficulties inseparable from an entirely new organization, and the embarrassments occasioned by building, from the first entrance of the first pupils they have been held under a strict but kindly supervision; and up to this time there has occurred no act of insubordination of a nature seriously to interfere with the steady discipline of the establishment.

20. *Successive admission of pupils.*

The successive admission of pupils, a few at a time, has contributed much to this result, by facilitating the work of the officers; it has also resulted in the formation of a class in which the newly arrived pupils are enrolled.

21. *Classification.*

The school is divided, at present, into 5 divisions of from 50 to 60 pupils each, arranged as much as possible according to age. There is an overseer to each division. Each division is separated into two sections; over each section is a captain (chef) and assistant, (sous-chef,) selected by the director from among such pupils as distinguish themselves for good conduct and industry. Each division has also a trumpet, (clairon.)

22. *Exercises of the day.*

The division of time is so regulated as to occupy every moment of the pupils, to prevent fatigue by variety and frequent succession of exercises, and to prevent them from escaping supervision. It varies somewhat, according to the season; and is at present arranged as follows, for summer and winter, Sundays and feast-days:

1. *Summer.*

HOURS.	
5	Rise.
5 to 5½	Prayers, washing, (soins de propretré,) bed-making, roll-call.
5½ " 6¼	Exercise and maneuvres.
6¼ " 6¾	Breakfast.
6¾ " 7	Arrangement of labor.
7 " 11	Working hours.
11 " 12	Singing class, practice by the band, (répétition pour la fanfare.)
12 " 12½	Dinner.
12½ " 1	Play.

HOURS.	
1 to 5¼	Working hours.
4½ " 5¼	Catechism for children not having received their first communion.
5¼ " 5¾	Supper.
5¾ " 7¼	School instruction.
7¼ " 8¾	Gymnastics.
8¾ " 9	Roll-call, reports.
9	Prayers, bed-time.
	Saturday, 5 to 8, cleaning workshops, baths, &c.

2. *Winter.*

HOURS.	
5	Rise.
5 to 5¾	Prayers, washing, &c., bed-making, roll-call.
5¾ " 6¾	Singing class.
6¾ " 7	Breakfast.
7 " 7¼	Arrangement of labor
7¼ " 12	Working hours.
11 " 12	Practice by the band, (répétition pour la fanfare.)
12 " 12½	Dinner.
12½ " 1	Play.

HOURS.	
1 to 2	Gymnastics and military exercises.
2 " 5¾	Working hours.
4½ " 5¾	Catechism for children not having received their first communion.
5¾ " 6	Supper
6 " 8	School instruction.
8 " 8½	Roll-call, report.
8½	Prayer. bed-time.
	Saturday, 1 to 4½, cleaning workshops, baths, &c.

3. *Sundays and feast-days all the year.*

HOURS.	
5 to 5½	Rise, prayer, washing, &c.
5½ " 7½	Clothes inspection, bed, &c., do.
7½ " 8	Breakfast.
8 " 8¾	Play.
8¾ " 9¾	Mass, sermon
9¾ " 11	Singing class.
11 " 12	Play, games, (recreation, jeux.)
12 " 12½	Dinner.
12½ " 2	Play, games.

HOURS.	
2 to 4	Catechism and religious instruction.
4 " 5¾	Gymnastics, military exercises, or walk.
5¾ " 6	Supper.
6 " 8	School instruction.
8 " 8½	Roll-call, report.
8½	Prayers, bed-time.

The results of this arrangement may be stated as follows:

	Hours.	
	Summer.	Winter.
Labor,	8¼	8½
School instruction,	1¾	2
Music, vocal and instrumental,	1	1
Gymnastics, manœuvres and military exercises,	2¼	1
Meals,	¾	¾
Play,	¾	¾
Rising, retiring, washing, roll-call, &c.,	1	1¼
Sleep,	8	8¾
An hour's catechism for pupils not having received their first communion, which is subtracted from working hours.		

23. *Physical training, gymnastics, military manœuvres, and exercises.*

It will be observed that gymnastics, manœuvres, and military exercises, especially in the summer, occupy a considerable portion of the day. To understand the necessity and good effect of these exercises, it would be necessary to see the deplorable condition of the majority of the children at their entrance, and the favorable change which appears in their appearance and health, after staying some time in the institution. Rickets, scrofula, want of elasticity in the limbs, difficulty of walking, all rapidly disappear under the drill of the manœuvres; which tend not only to confirm the health and to increase the strength and activity of the children, but also to accustom them to discipline, to awaken their power of attention, and to furnish them an agreeable variety of employment, while preparing them for different useful occupations. The fatigue of these exercises, while not amounting to exhaustion, predisposes the pupils to sleep, and may perhaps be considered a most effective safeguard against the shameful habits and secret vices induced by sedentary life, which are only too frequent in public and educational institutions, but which are fortunately being destroyed in the beginning at Ruysselede.

Under the very zealous and skillful direction of the director of gymnastics, the exercises are performed with very remarkable interest and accuracy. The school battalion manœuvres with almost as much precision as the best battalions of the army; a platoon, armed with condemned carbines, marches at the head and marks time; the bayonet exercise and skirmishing are as good as play to the children; and those among them who shall go into military service will have already passed through all the drill of the conscripts.

24. *School of naval apprentices.*

To complete this department of instruction, of which we presume no one will deny the utility, it is sought to connect with the gymnasium a school of naval apprentices, for the war and merchant marine. Such an establishment, which the minister of the interior lately mentioned as promising materially to alleviate the distress in Flanders, by opening a new occupation to the laboring population, might be advantageously and economically attached to an existing institution, whose inmates, consisting principally of abandoned children, beggars, and vagrants, seem well adapted to become sailors. In several pauper schools in England, and recently in France also, at the school of Mettray, there have been established classes of naval apprentices, several of the graduates of which have immediately found employment in the sea-port towns. Imitation of this example would doubtless produce a similar result. For this purpose it would be sufficient, as at Mettray and at Norwood, near London, to add to the gymnastic apparatus the masts and spars of a brig, with their sails and rigging, and to procure the attendance of a seaman twice a week, to direct the manœuvres. According to the estimates which have been made, the necessary apparatus would cost about $2,000, which would be reduced to $1,200 or $1,600 if it could be procured at second hand.

25. *Provision made for intellectual, moral, and religious education as developed in the following articles.*

26. *School organization.*

The course of study, which was only outlined in 1849, has been completely organized during 1850. The pupils are divided into two classes, each subdivided into sections. Over each class is a teacher, assisted by a certain number of monitors chosen from among the pupils, for whom is arranged a special daily course, to prepare them for their business. Among these monitors are some who exhibit dispositions and skill quite remarkable; and who may probably become distinguished instructors.

27. *Course of study.*

The studies, pursued alternately in French and Flemish, are reading, writing, grammar, dictation, intuition, exercise of memory, arithmetic, mental and written, the legal system of weights and measures, general geography, the history of the country, the rudiments of linear drawing, and vocal and instrumental music. This course can hereafter be extended, according to the progress of the pupils, so as to embrace all the knowledge useful to a workman, and which can contribute to his intellectual, moral, and professional accomplishment. At the beginning it was necessary to limit the course to the most elementary rudiments.

28. *Method of teaching.*

The method followed is that of M. Braün, professor of pedagogy in the normal school at Nivelles, (intuitive method.) To acquaint the instructors of the school at Ruysselede with this method, they were sent for several months to the normal school at Nivelles, where they studied with success the course in methodology. In consequence of these preparatory studies, these officers are thorough masters of their business; they display both zeal and perseverance; and from this time forward the schools at Ruysselede will rank among the first institutions of the kind in the country.

29. *Order of exercises. Winter.*

Week Days.	Hours, P. M.	2nd Class (beginners.)
SUNDAY	6 to 6½	Articulation and writing.
	6½ “ 7	Reading.
	7 “ 7½	Weights and measures.
	7½ “ 8	Do. practically applied.
MOND.	6 “ 6½	Articulation and writing.
	6½ “ 7	Reading.
	7 “ 7½	Arithmetic, mental.
	7½ “ 8	“ written.
TUES.	6 “ 6½	Articulation and writing.
	6½ “ 7	Reading.
	7 “ 7½	Reading, (intuition.)
	7½ “ 8	Exercises in memory.
WED.	6 “ 6½	Articulation and writing.
	6½ “ 7	Reading.
	7 “ 7½	Arithmetic, mental.
	7½ “ 8	“ written.
THURS.	6 to 6½	Articulation and writing.
	6½ “ 7	Reading.
	7 “ 7½	Weights and measures.
	7½ “ 8	Same, applied.
FRIDAY	6 “ 6½	Articulation and writing.
	6½ “ 7	Reading.
	7 “ 7½	Arithmetic, mental.
	7½ “ 8	“ written.
SATUR.	6 “ 6½	Articulation and writing.
	6½ “ 7	Reading.
	7 “ 7½	Arithmetic, mental,
	7½ “ 8	“ written.

Week Days.	Hours, P. M.	1st Class (beginners.)
SUNDAY	6 to 7	Writing.
	7 “ 7½	Arithmetic, mental.
	7½ “ 8	“ written.
MON.	6 “ 6½	Dictation. Flemish.
	6½ “ 7	Correction of do., spelling.
	7 “ 8	Reading, Flemish.
TUES.	6 “ 6½	Dictation, French.
	6½ “ 7	Correction of above.
	7 “ 8	Reading, French.
WED.	6 “ 6½	Explanations of forms of letters.
	6½ “ 7	Letters written in blank book.
	7 “ 7½	Oral translation.
	7½ “ 8	Writing phrases dictated.
THURS.	6 to 6½	Geography.
	6½ “ 7	History of the country
	7 “ 7½	Arithmetic, mental.
	7½ “ 8	“ written.
FRIDAY	6 “ 6½	Weights and measures.
	6½ “ 7	Written application of do.
	7 “ 8	Reading, French.
SATUR.	6 “ 7	Grammar.
	7 “ 8	Drawing from a model.

30. *Instruction in Singing.*

A solfeggio lesson is given every morning from six to seven to the second class, and one in singing at the same time to the first class. The method used is that of Galin-Paris-Chevé, partly combined with the ordinary method by notes. Some of the more advanced scholars are also learning church music, and can already sing the service of the mass.

31. *Instrumental music; military band.*

In March 1850, a military band was organized of fifteen instruments of copper, (on the plan of Sax,) namely: 1 small bugle in *e flat*, 3 tenor bugles in *b*, 2 alto bugles in *e*, 2 cornets á piston, 1 small key trumpet, 2 cylinder trumpets, 2 cylinder trombones, 1 tuba in *b flat*, 1 base tuba in *f*. A master attends twice a week from Bruges, and notwithstanding that none of the children knew a single note, a few months since, he has trained thirty young musicians who are equal to most of those of the regimental bands. The band plays at exercises, and marches at the head of the scholars when they walk in the neighborhood; it amuses them on Sunday, and figures in all the solemnities of the establishment. There are, besides, 8 trumpets, which sound for roll-call, and fill the place of bells in the public offices. The instruction of the pupils in the use of wind instruments will doubtless furnish some of them with useful and lucrative occupation; all those who are capable of it will be admitted to the musical corps of the army, on their dismissal.

32. *Apparatus and furniture; library.*

The school-rooms are spacious, well lighted, and provided with all the necessary furniture and apparatus; desks, seats, platforms, tables, maps, weights and measures, models, &c. A library of the best books, moral, instructive, and amusing, is in process of formation for the use of the officers and pupils.

33. *Mental acquirements of pupils at entrance.*

Of 245 pupils, January 1, 1851, at their entrance were: 42 knew how to read and write; 22 knew the alphabet; 181 completely ignorant. Those children who had acquired some degree of instruction, had received it at the school of the penitentiary at Saint-Hubert; those from the alms-house of Cambre and Bruges, were mostly quite as ignorant as the young beggars and vagrants who entered the school from time to time.

34. *Instruction actually given to the pupils.*

35. *Religious department.*

The want of accommodations and the small number of pupils did not allow, at first, of the appointment of a chaplain to the school; all that could be done was to erect a temporary altar in a sufficiently large room, and by the kindness of the curate of Ruysselede, every Sunday and feast-day, one of the vicars of the commune attended to say mass and to give religious instruction. This temporary arrangement lasted until June, 1850. At that time, the appointment of the Abbé Bruson to the place of chaplain, caused the school as it were to enter upon a new phase of existence. The all-powerful influence of religion has united with that of the discipline and supervision, to realize the work of reformation to which all the efforts of the faculty are directed. The worthy ecclesiastic to whom has been confided the work of instructing these poor children, has become their friend and father; they all love and respect him. Constantly among them, he studies their characters, inquires their wants, and does not spare good advice.

36. *Religious condition of the children at their entrance and after their stay at the school; report of the chaplain.*

The result of the inquiries made at their entrance, and of the examination made by the chaplain, shows that the great majority of the children sent to the reform school, are ignorant of the essential truths of religion. Of 245 pupils present at the end of 1850, 142 had, it is true, received their first communion; but of this number only 13 knew the whole catechism, and only 11 of these answered satisfactorily. The others had only begun the principal lessons, and had almost entirely forgotten them. But let us hear the chaplain himself, who, in a report addressed to the committee of inspection at the close of 1850, reviews all the religious condition of the institution.

"As to the children who have not partaken of their first communion, some on account of their youth, and some on account of the sadly neglected condition in which they have vegetated, it would be fortunate, so far as these last are concerned, if they knew their prayers and the most important religious truths. There are among them 35 from 13 to 16 years of age, of whom 11 scarcely know their prayers, and 12 have only begun to learn two or three lessons in the catechism. All the pupils are obliged to attend mass on Sundays and feast-days, during which they receive a short lesson. So far as circumstances permits, divine service is performed with singing and music; and when the new chapel shall be finished, I see no reason why there should not be, as in parish churches, the solemn celebration, by singing, of matins, high mass, vespers and benediction. Prayers are said at rising and going to bed, and before and after meals. I think it would also be useful if the teachers should see that the recitations are begun and ended with a short prayer, or at least with the sign of the cross.

The pupils who have not yet received their first communion, recite daily for an hour in the catechism. They learn the letter of the book simultaneously, and the sense is afterward explained to them. Every day are added new questions and answers, and the former ones are repeated. Thus they make rapid progress.

The religious instruction is given in Flemish, which is the language of the great majority of the pupils. By their continual intercourse with each other, they learn both French and Flemish rapidly enough; but as a precaution, and not to give any excuse for wrong doing, care is taken to repeat, to the Walloons especially, in French, the instruction which has already been given in Flemish.

I desire here to express my hopes for the future of all these poor children, whom a judicious charity has lifted from a miserable, ignorant, and brutish degradation. The regularity of their conduct, the excellent spirit which animates them, the good order existing continually and every where, the good examples which they furnish to one another, the good habits which they acquire, the willing regularity with which they perform their religious duties, the aid, support, and advice which they continually receive from instructors interested in and devoted to their work, and above all the excellent character of the principal authority of the school, which is the soul of the whole institution, and which is above all praise, are not only presages of a better future, and foundations for hope; they give convincing assurances that from the reform schools of Ruysselede shall come laborious, honest, moral, religious, and therefore happy men."

38. *Order and discipline.*

In the absence of any other set of rules, the inspector-general of charitable institutions, who has special supervision of the organization of reform schools, in conjunction with the committee of supervision and inspection, and the director, has made the necessary regulations to insure the discipline and good order of the establishment.

39. *Moral accountability.*

A system of moral accountability has been established upon a basis at once simple and complete. For each pupil there is a file of papers, in which are preserved the examination at his entrance, the statement of his condition before entrance, his conduct and progress during his stay, his condition at leaving and afterwards. This file contains also other documents concerning the pupil; judgments, certificates, letters, and all information which may inform the authority of the school as to his standing and as to the results of his education in the reform school. These papers will furnish invaluable information for the exercise of judicious patronage.

40. *Book of conduct.*

The head overseer has charge of a book, in which he enters regularly the communications daily made him as to the standing of the pupils, by the overseers, foremen of the workshops, captains of sections, &c. At the end of each month the director reviews these entries, and makes out the good and bad marks, for 1. general conduct; 2. order and neatness; 3. school studies; 4. religious duties; 5. work.

41. *Class and register of honor.*

Those pupils who have received no punishment during three consecutive months, and have during each of those months received a fixed maximum of good marks, are admitted into a class of honor, from which the director selects the captains and assistants of sections. The names of those in this class are written upon a register which hangs in one of the principal rooms.

42. *Rewards.*

The distribution of rewards is the duty of the director. They are entered in the running account with each pupil, in the reports of moral accountability which are submitted to the inspector-general and to the members of the committee of inspection, at each of their visits. The rewards are, 1. honorable mention; 2. public eulogy; 3. admission to certain confidential employments; 4. appointment as captain or assistant of section; 5. registration in the register of honor; 6. permission to learn to play some instrument, and to become a member of the band; 7. walks, short journeys, visits home, &c.

43. *Names on the register of honor, January* 1, 1851.

The register of honor was made up for the first time, January 1, 1850. At the end of that year, it contained the names of 164 pupils, of whom 58 were registered once; 39 twice; 50 three times; 17 four times.

44. *Erasures from the register of honor in* 1850.

No favors are granted except accordingly as the name of the pupil appears on the register of honor. A single fault or bad mark is sufficient to cause the erasure of a name. The number erased during the year is 23, namely:

For insubordination,	7	For stealing fruit, eggs, carrots, &c.,	5
" dirtiness,	4	" aiding and abetting the above,	1
" idleness,	2	" running away	1
" indecent proposals,	1		—
" false accusation,	1	Total,	23
" gluttony,	1		

45. *Punishments.*

While good conduct and praiseworthy actions are rewarded, crimes and faults are punished with more or less severity. The punishments used are the following: 1. reprimand; 2. detention during play-hours; 3. forced marching, with or without hand-cuffs, and with or without diet on bread and water; 4. loss of place of captain, or assistant of section; 5. dismission from certain confidential employments; 6. deprivation of musical instrument and dismission from band; 6. erasure of name from register of honor; 7. the prison.

No punishment is inflicted except by decision of the director. The captains of sections report to the overseers of divisions, they to the chief overseer, he to the director. Overseers may give a reprimand, and may put the pupils under detention from play-hours.

46. *Punishments inflicted in* 1850.

The punishments are entered in a book, and carried to the account of the pupils who have incurred them. Their number, and the causes, are as follows:

Quarrels,	4	Blasphemy,	3
Violent assaults,	5	Indecent proposals,	2
Laziness,	27	False accusation,	1
Dirtiness,	35	Theft of carrots, fruit, eggs, &c.,	13
Insubordination,	25	Assisting in above,	4
Negligence,	14	Trying to run away,	8
Turbulence,	15	Running away,	4
Refusing to work,	3		—
Gluttony,	5	Total,	168

It has generally been sufficient to administer a public reprimand. In other cases, recourse has been had to the condemned squad, sometimes with hand-cuffs, rarely with diet on bread and water. There has been no use, hitherto, of the prison. One captain of section has been degraded. All the others have felt the honor of their position, have been justly proud of their distinction, and have deserved to retain it.

47. *Preservation of morals and manners.*

As we have already observed, the preservation of the morals and manners of the pupils is the object of daily and hourly care; among the means used for this purpose, are the following: uninterrupted supervision; the nature of the work, which is performed mostly in the open air; gymnastic and military exercises; correction of habits of position—as, hands on tables in school, in dining room, &c.; inspection and lighting of sleep-rooms—there is a watchman in each room, and the overseer on guard makes frequent rounds; education, intellectual and religious; warnings and advice of the chaplain and director; provisions for special supervision.

48. *Meetings and conferences of pupils and officers.*

On the first Sunday of each month, after mass, the officers and pupils all gather to a general assembly, under the presidency of the director. He then addresses eulogiums and admonitions to those deserving them, publishes rewards and punishments, appoints the captains and assistants of sections, and discourses upon the proceedings of the past month, with the purpose of keeping the pupils within their duty, of stimulating their zeal, and of rousing within them good sentiments and noble thoughts. These meetings, which hitherto have had a most salutary influence, will hereafter take place every week.

Further, the director proposes every Saturday afternoon to meet the principal officers for the purpose of advising with them upon any necessary matter, and to discuss the interests of the pupils, and the measures necessary to the continued and increased success of the establishment. There will also be kept a book of regulations and a journal of events at the school.

49. *State of feeling in the school; results of system.*

The state of feeling in the school is at present excellent. The children are obedient, respectful to their superiors, polite and obliging to each other; disputes are rare; the brotherly feeling prevailing among them is continually strengthened. They are attached to the institution; they have its reputation at heart, and when one of them does any thing wrong, his severest penalty is the disapprobation of his companions, and the solitude in which they leave him. This interdict, put by the good upon the bad, is remarkable; it is a powerful assistance to discipline; and more than one child upon whom the warnings and counsels of the officers had taken no hold, has yielded to the moral pressure and salutary power of the public opinion of the school.

During the year now closing, there have been several opportunities to estimate the influence of the system of education introduced in the establishment. The agricultural and industrial exhibition at Bruges, September, 1850, where the reform school attended with its car, bearing the symbols of agriculture, the band, and the armed company; the distribution of medals for the same exhibition, which took place a little after, at the commune of Ruysselede, and where the pupils attended to receive the premiums given to their collective labor; the agricultural decoration granted to the head farmer for his good and faithful services; the ceremonies of the jubilee at Bruges, in which those pupils took part whose names are in the register of honor; all these have been powerful incitements of encouragement and emulation. By coming thus in contact with society, by seeing themselves surrounded with the evidence of so much care, the pupils have seen that their reinstatement therein was commenced. The wretched little beggar, the young vagabond without home or country, begins to experience the recognition, the love, and the understanding of the dignity, of humanity. The proofs of this transformation are numerous; we will cite a few at hazard.

During the past summer the chiefs of sections, with an overseer, went to Bruges to bring a number of children from the alms-house there; they were busy all the forenoon in washing them, changing their clothes, and preparing them to depart; at dinner-time, being invited to take their meal with the others, they all, without concerted agreement for one reason or another, refused. On coming home at evening, fatigued with their journey, the director asked them the reason of that refusal. "We were hungry enough," said they, "but we had rather fast than eat beggars' soup." During the festivals at Bruges, several persons, pleased with the good appearance of the pupils, offered them money; they all refused but one, who accepted a five franc piece ($1.00) which he placed in a box containing aid for children leaving the school. At the distribution of medals at Ruysselede, the burgomaster who presided, offered to one of the pupils a piece of silver. "Thank you, sir," said he, "we have all that we need; we should not know what to do with the money; please give it to some one more unfortunate than we." During December last, the chaplain, at divine service, delivered a sermon, taking for his text the two first words of the Lord's prayer; Our Father. This touching address made a deep impression upon the pupils, who spontaneously waited for the chaplain to come out from the chapel, saluted him with unanimous acclamations, and testified their gratitude and affection by an actual ovation. At the New Year it was the director's turn; the pupils had prepared an agreeable surprise for him. At the moment when the clock struck the expiration of the old year, and the coming in of the new, the whole school came together to present to him their congratulations and regards, and to give him a serenade. Some days afterwards there happened the formal emancipation of one of the best pupils, who was placed among the laborers on the farm. On this occasion the director pronounced a feeling discourse, which was heard with religious attention, and which doubtless left useful impressions on their minds. We mention these things, because they appear to us to be the symptoms, we might even say the certain evidence, of a true reform. When we compare the present condition of the pupils with that in which they were at their arrival, we may measure with justifiable pride the distance between those periods, and the progress made in less than eighteen months.

The preceding details will show that the establishment at Ruysselede is not a prison—a place of penitence—but actually a true reform school, as its title indicates. The pupils enjoy a liberty limited only by rules to which they submit almost spontaneously, and with good will; all idea of constraint is avoided; there are neither walls, barriers, grates, nor bolts; so that if the children remain in the institution, it is because they are contented and choose to. The small number of escapes which have taken place, demonstrates the advantage of a system based upon confidence and persuasion. The officers do not hesitate when a pupil behaves well, if he belongs to a respectable family, to allow him to visit his parents, if in the neighborhood; these permissions have never been abused, and the pupils to whom they have been given have always returned at the hour prescribed. They can also grant other diversions by way of favor, as a reward of good conduct, and an incentive to more; on certain festival days the most meritorious pupils may be allowed to sit at table with the officers; during winter evenings they may be allowed to put off going to bed, and to employ themselves in such study or reading as they please, or to take part in familiar conversations upon instructive and amusing subjects. Games may be played, such as shooting with bow and arrow, bowling, skittles, &c. The institution, lastly, of annual festivals, as in the German schools, and especially the anniversary of the school, contribute to give variety and animation to the daily life of the pupils, to rivet the bonds of gratitude and affection between them and their benefactors, and to furnish agreeable reminiscences of their stay in the school.

50. *Agricultural organization; employment of the pupils on the farm.*

The reform school of Ruysselede, according to the plan on which it was founded, is especially an agricultural establishment. The whole organization of labor is based upon agricultural and kindred occupations, such as may be performed in the fields. The pupils work in the earth, sow and plant; the younger hoe or pull weeds; the older and stronger are employed in harvesting and thrashing. One brigade is specially attached to the farm, where its members in regular rotation are employed at the stables, the hog-pens, the poultry-yard, the manure heaps, the dairy, &c. Another brigade is employed in the kitchen-garden, under the direction and supervision of the gardener and his assistant. During these two first years, it has been necessary to employ laborers from without the school, to assist the inexperience of the children, and to perform some work too difficult for them; but after this year, the establishment can undoubtedly supply all its own labor.

51. *Combination and alternation of agricultural and mechanical labor.*

During the season of cultivation, it is estimated that the farm work will regularly occupy from 250 to 300 children; these are selected in preference from among the country pupils, orphans, and abandoned children; the town children, who at their dismission are to return to their families, will find employment in the workshops already organized, or shortly to be so; these same workshops will also furnish occupation for the farm-laborers during the winter, and whenever out-door work is necessarily suspended.

52. *Choice and nature of occupation, according to the circumstances of the children.*

In the selection of occupations it has been requisite to harmonize the interests of the two classes of pupils, town and country children, so as to give them equal advantages for whatever situation they may take on leaving the school. This object has been carefully considered by the instructors, who, without coming to any very definite resolution on this point, have considered the following occupations as satisfying more or less the conditions required.

Blacksmithing, locksmithing, making and repairing farming tools, edge-tool making, trellis making, machinist's work. The erection of the steam-engine will allow of instructing pupils in managing it, and in the duty of fireman, &c.

Carpentry, joiner-work, wheel-wrighting, cooperage, wooden-shoe making, turning, carving in wood; saddle and harness making; shoe-making and repairing; tailoring and mending; painting, glazing, masonry, hod-carrying, brick-making, plastering, &c.; basket-making, straw-plaiting, hat, mat, and broom-making, &c.; nail-making, brush-making; making toys and chains; making various woven articles; carpets, slippers, &c.; manufacture of flax; breaking, hatcheling, spinning, winding, weaving, &c.; milling, baking, cooking; domestic labor; education as musicians, soldiers, sailors, &c.

53. *Occupations already introduced into the reform school.*

Some of the above-named employments are already introduced into the school. The workshops of the blacksmith and locksmiths, carpenters, wheelwrights, coopers, tailors, basket-makers, and straw-weavers, are already in operation; the spinning and weaving shop is entirely fitted up, and contains 60 spinning-wheels, 6 twisting machines, 9 bobbin machines, 1 reel, and 1 warp machine. It is waiting for a foreman, to be put in operation. The tailors' shop is directed by an overseer; over the others are placed good workmen, paid by the day or the month, who work themselves while directing the pupils under them. It has been the practice to choose overseers from among workmen skillful enough to direct the principal workshops of the school. By thus combining supervision and direction of work, strict economy will be conjoined with strict discipline. There are already among the overseers a laborer, a gardener, and a tailor, exercising these duplicate functions.

54. *Number of pupils in different occupations.*

The 245 pupils present at the beginning of 1851, were occupied as follows:

A.—Farm and garden.

1. Kitchen-garden,	30	4. Stables,	4
2. Thrashing,	12	5. Farm, various operations,	20—70
3. Teams,	4		

B.—Workshops.

6. Tailors and menders,	30	12. Plumber's apprentices,	1
7. Joiners and carpenters,	13	13. Straw-plaiters, hat and basket weavers,	40
8. Blacksmiths and locksmiths,	8	14. Mending roads with gravel, breaking stone,	28—125
9. Wheelwright's apprentices,	2		
10. Cooper's "	2		
11. Machinist's "	1		

C.—Domestic service.

15. Baker's assistants,	2	21. In Infirmary,	1
16. Washermen,	11	22. Acting as porter	1
17. Cooks and pickers,	12	23. Trumpeter on guard,	1—48
18. Monitors of neatness,	15	24. Sick in infirmary,	2
19. Waiting on officers,	2	Total,	245
20. Cooking for officers,	3		

It will be seen that all the pupils are occupied, notwithstanding the winter; there is no want of work; and if the number of arms were greater, it would not be difficult to use them. About sixty of the children are under 12 years old. These are employed in the easiest and least fatiguing work; they plait straw and make hats for the whole school. The older and stronger are set at work requiring more strength and intelligence. But whenever weather permits, or an emergency demands, they all leave the workshops for the fields, where they render whatever assistance they are able. There are several advantages in this change of occupations; the succession and variety satisfy the curiosity of the children, sustain their activity, and preserve them from the inevitable fatigue of monotonous and uniform labor; allow of consulting their preferences and aptitudes, and will have the general effect of giving them simultaneous practice in different occupations, which will be of assistance to them hereafter.

55. *Inducements to labor; absence of pay.*

The pupils receive no wages; before being paid for their work, they should make up the expense of their maintenance, education, and apprenticeship. Besides, an alms chest has sufficed to supply the necessary outfits at their departure. For pecuniary emolument have been substituted elevation to higher classes; emulation; moral encouragements; praises bestowed upon industry and progress. The plan has perfectly succeeded. The pupils labor with gaiety and good will, and they do not even dream of money, which indeed they would not know what to do with while remaining in the establishment.

56. *Condition of property at occupation; extension of clearing and cultivation; kitchen-garden, nursery, and orchard.*

The agricultural operations have gone on as usual during the past year. At the occupation of the land, in the end of 1848, the fields presented a most deplorable aspect. Neglected, exhausted, overgrown with weeds, and with couch-grass, which still persists in growing, in spite of care and repeated hoeings, they seemed to defy the most persevering efforts. During 1849, nevertheless, about 63 hectares (160 acres) were put under cultivation. In 1850, the clearing has been continued, and cultivation extended, in the whole, over about 98 hectares (245 acres.) A kitchen-garden has been laid out, occupying about 4½ hectares

(10 acres,) arranged in the best manner; the walks are bordered with fruit trees, and it is surrounded with a hedge of gooseberry and raspberry bushes, and mulberry trees. One side of the kitchen-garden is a small nursery of fruit, forest, and ornamental trees, intended to furnish material for plantations and for the instruction of the pupils. For the same purpose there has been laid out an experimental field, where grain and seeds of different sorts and of the best varieties are planted. Thus will be discovered those best adapted to the soil of the establishment, and whose cultivation will present most chances of success. The orchard was infected with an unhealthy blight; and contained only a few mangy and withering apple trees. It has been renovated, and now serves for a pasture for young cattle.

57. *Manure.*

(Method of procuring manure, during early part of farming operations.)

58. *Rotation of crops.*

(Area in different crops; rotation used.)

59. *Lost harvest; estimate of value of property.*

(Items of calculation in estimating totals of farming expenses.)

60. *Agricultural accounts.*

(Reference to appendix for details.)

61. *Balance of receipts and expenses.*

(Summary of expenses and returns from farming operations.)

62. *Average product per hectare.*

(Names, quantities per hectare, and value of crops.)

63. *Experiments in cultivation; necessity of proportioning cultivated land to amount of labor and of required provisions.*

(Outline of experiments made; need of enlarging cultivated area stated.)

64. *Number of cattle.*

(Names and number of stock.)

65. *Farm apparatus.*

(Names and number of vehicles and implements.)

66. *Inventory of provisions in store.*

(Value of provisions on hand.)

67. *Revenue of property in* 1848 *and* 1850, *compared.*

(Condition of establishment, and revenue, at those dates.)

68. *Medals received by the reform school at the agricultural exhibitions of Ghent and Bruges.*

Notwithstanding its recent organization, the reform school sent specimens of its productions to the exhibition opened at Ghent, September, 1849, where it received a silver medal for its flax, which was remarkably good. In 1850, at the agricultural exhibition of Bruges, it took seven new medals, besides the agricultural decoration of the second class, bestowed upon the head farmer. These remunerations compensated labor; and the remembrance of them will not fail to stimulate the zeal and activity of both pupils and officers.

69. During the three years, 1848, 49, and 50, there have been made to the school appropriations amounting in all to 602,500 francs (120,500 dollars,) as follows:

	Francs.		Dollars.
1848, ...	4,000	=	800
1848, ...	171,500	=	34,300
1849, ...	195,000	=	39,000
1850, ...	232,000	=	46,400
Total, ...	602,500	=	120,500

70. *Summary and classification of expenses.*

	Expenses.		
	1848-49.	1850.	Total.
Preparation, maintenance, clearing, building, &c.,	$2,900.00	$	$2,900.00
Price of property; building, &c., ...	61,936.77	27,656.90	89,593.66
Agricultural expenses, ...	4,780.07	6,170.08	10,950.16
Workshop expenses, ...	18.61	485.96	504.57
Salaries and paid wages, ...	4,464.55	12,087.06	16,551.61
Total, ...	74,100.00	46,400.00	120,500.00

71. *Receipts.*

During the last two years, the receipts of the establishment have amounted to 118,152 francs, 25 cents. ($23.630.45 ;) of which $11,210.67 has been paid into the treasury for board of pupils and from sales of produce, and $12,419.77 were in kind, being value of produce raised and consumed in the establishment.

72. *General financial results.*

The result of the financial summary, omitting the expenditures for farming and for workshops, which are more than balanced by existing values of property, cattle, machinery, tools, raw material, and provisions in store, is as follows:

1. There has been expended from the sum of 600,000 francs, ($120,000,) appropriated to the reform school by the law of April 3, 1848, 447,968 fr., 34 cts., ($89,593.67,) in the organization of the school for boys.

2. There therefore remains, available for establishing the school for girls, 152,032 fr., ($30,406.40.)

3. The expense of management and support of the boys' school for 1849 and 1850, was 82,758 fr., ($16,551.60.) The number of days' maintenance of pupils for the same time, was 89,508; the average expense per day was therefore 90 centimes, (18 cents.) But in this estimate are included the expenses of furniture, &c., bedding and clothes for 500 children; which are in fact advances, not properly charged to the account of ordinary expenses for the two seasons for which the estimate is made. After deducting these extraordinary expenses from the expenditure for 1850, as well as personal expenses carried to the farming account, the actual expense for the year, of the boys' school is as follows:

	Francs. c.		Dollars.
1. Board of officers,	9,483.32	=	1,896.66
2. Other housekeeping expenses of officers,	6,172.81	=	1,034.56
3. Sleeping expenses of officers,	177.00	=	35.40
4. Uniforms of overseers,	119.06	=	23.81
5. Board of pupils,	13,676.65	=	2,735.33
6. Wardrobes of pupils,	2,025.00	=	405.00
7. Sleeping expenses of pupils,	640.00	=	128.00
8. Heating of establishment,	287.21	=	57.44
9. Lights for establishment,	1,403.76	=	280.75
10. Apparatus for personal neatness,	198.59	=	39.72
11. Washing,	651.74	=	130.35
12. Office expenses,	188.77	=	37.75
13. School expenses,	731.60	=	146.32
14. Religious expenses,	200.40	=	40.08
15. Infirmary expenses,	48.94	=	9.78
Total,	35,004.85	=	7,000.97

The number of days' maintenance being 62,462, there follows:

	fr. c.		$ cts.
Dailly expense per head for board,	0.21.89	=	0.04.38
" " " " other,	0.34.15	=	0.06.83
Giving daily expense of support,	0.56.04	=	0.11.21

The expense of board and maintenance of the officers may be stated as follows.

	francs. c.		Dollars.
1. Board,	4,560.88	=	912.17
2. Cook's wages,	206.50	=	41.30
3. Washing,	355.59	=	71.12
4. Fuel for cooking,	49.84	=	9.97
Total,	5.172.81	=	1.034.56

Number of days' maintenance, including cook's, 4,667; consequently,

	Fr. c.		$ cts.
Daily expense of board, per head,	0.97.72	=	0.19.54
" " other " "	0.10.56	=	0.02.11
Whole daily expense of board and housekeeping,	1.08.28	=	0.21.65

Lastly, the farm household has cost as follows:

	Francs. c.		Dollars. cts.
1. Board,	2,424.19	=	484.84
2. Lights,	70.00	=	14.00
3. Heating,	35.00	=	7.00
4. Washing,	246.18	=	49.23
5. Clothing for laborers,	27.36	=	5.47
Total,	2,802.73	=	560.54

The number of days' maintenance is 3,301; consequently,

	Fr. c.		$. cts.
Daily expense per head, of board,	0.73.43	=	0.14.69
" " " " " other,	0.11.47	=	0.02.29
Daily expenses per head, of all,	0.84.90	=	0.16.98

If it has been possible, during 1850, to reduce the daily expense each of the pupils to 56 centimes (11 cts.,) it may be hoped that this rate will be reduced yet more when the school shall be enlarged to its full extent, and when the general expenses of officers and government shall be apportioned upon a greater number.

The high rate of expenses for the former years resulted from the necessity of buying in market or in trade the greater portion of the provisions, fodder, and manure, used in the establishment. The production of these articles will not be upon its true economic footing, until the school shall provide for all its essential needs from the produce of its own cultivation and its own workshops. To accomplish this purpose, we repeat, that it is indispensable to put at least 200 hectares, (500 acres) under cultivation; that is, at the rate of one hectare (2½ acres) to five souls, of a total population of about 1,000. It will otherwise be difficult or impossible to reduce the expenses to the amount to be paid by the communes, and much more to 20 or 25 centimes (4 or 5 cts.) a day, as desired.

73. *Expenses for* 1851.
74. *Estimate for* 1852.
75. *Erection of school for girls.*
76. *Filling of complement of boys' school.*
77. *Insufficiency of the school, necessity of an auxiliary establishment.*

According to the statements of the alms-houses, the number of boys from 6 to 18 years old, in those establishments, January 1, 1848, had arisen to 542. Since that time there has been a slight decrease, but there are now nearly 500, including the young beggars who have been transferred from the alms-houses of Bruges and Cambre to Ruysselede. Besides, this last institution is destined to receive certain classes of children who have not heretofore been sent to the alms-houses. If now we consider that the period of remaining at Ruysselede is longer than that usually passed in the alms-houses, it is evident that the reform school is altogether incompetent to receive all that class of population for whom it was intended.

Hence the necessity of attaching to the school at Ruysselede an auxiliary school capable of containing from 100 to 150 children. The reason of recommending such a subordinate school is the considerable expense necessary for a new separate establishment; while an auxiliary school, like the detached farms at Mettray, would cause only comparatively a small one. This auxiliary, situated as near as possible to the principal school, would be under the same government with it. It would be sufficient to erect upon the farm leased or bought, a building large enough for sleeping-room, sitting-room, refectory and school-room, with two or three apartments for the overseers. The housekeeping could be done at the farm-house. In matters of religion, the pupils might be associated with the people of the village. Perhaps an arrangement could be made with the village schoolmaster to give a daily lesson. Before being sent to the branch school, the pupils should stay long enough at the central school to acquire the necessary discipline and education. Every Sunday, if the distance be not too great, they might go to that establishment, and engage in the ordinary exercises there.

This arrangement is evidently as simple as economical. Under good direction, with land enough (60 to 80 hectares—150 to 200 acres,) the auxiliary school, instead of causing extra expense, would cause an actual saving to the principal school.

78. *Conclusion.*

To judge of the reform school at Ruysselede, and to appreciate the results obtained there up to this time, it is necessary not to lose sight of the date of its establishment, and the short time since the entrance of the first pupils. Its experience is hardly begun; the foundations are laid, but they are yet to be submitted to the test of daily practice. If the expectations of government have hitherto been realized and even surpassed, in some respects, this result must chiefly be attributed to the devotion and zeal of the committee, the director, of the officers generally; but it is far from this point to definitive success; and to attain this without miscarriage, requires a steady perseverance which nothing can discourage, and the firm resolve to overcome the difficulties and obstacles which can not fail to present themselves.

When the agricultural department shall be on a thorough footing, it will be proper to extend and perfect it so as to bring the amount of production up to the demands of the population. The stable, the dairy, the piggery, the poultry-yard, should furnish regular profits. The inexperience of the young beggars who had never handled a tool before in their lives, their idleness, which great pains were necessary to overcome, their vicious and enfeebled constitutions which had to be built up, were so many obstacles which must be taken into account. But now that these embarrassments are in great part removed, that the school and the farm have a definite organization, that the pupils have acquired, with the habit of discipline, a degree of strength and skill, undoubtedly the attention of the authorities can be more particularly directed to financial matters, and can take cognizance of many details hitherto necessarily neglected.

The workshops in process of organization will also help to lessen the expense of the establishment. The combination of mechanical and agricultural labor will afford opportunity to vary occupation and to distribute them accordingly to the fitness and future interests of the pupils. Each of these should learn at least one trade completely, and the rotative method at present introduced in the farm-work is accommodated to this design of the apprenticeships.

The department of instruction should be completed. The children should do no work without having it explained to them. A purely mechanical and entirely uniform occupation brutifies the workman, while varied and intelligent labor increases his power and elevates his mind. Already, during the past spring, the head gardener has held classes at which he has explained to the pupils under his charge the theory of the operations which they are called to practice in the ground; these might be arranged likewise for other departments of labor. There will be also a permanent course of linear drawing, for the benefit of carpenters, locksmiths, blacksmiths, wheelwrights, &c. All the pupils will be taught the fundamental rules of arithmetic; which will enable them to make the calculations connected with their work, and to keep the simple accounts required in it.

After providing for present exigencies, it is necessary to care for those of the future. The extension of assistance to the pupils at leaving the reform school, may be very advantageously used in prescribing certain conditions of apprenticeship or hire. Among these conditions will be a stipulation for the sending back to the school, in certain cases of pupils guilty of misconduct, or not possessing the qualifications requisite for the business they have undertaken. This arrangement will have the double advantage of facilitating the finding of places, and of preserving over the pupils, after their dismission, a guardianship, the want of which is now felt as a defect. It will also be proper that the authorities of the school should have the privilege of putting out the children, on proper occasions, without waiting for the prescribed time of dismission, as well as that of prolonging their stay, when there is no opportunity of finding places for them. Later, when the reform school shall have come into complete operation, and shall have been fully developed, the means may be sought of favoring the emigration of those pupils who are not bound to their country by family ties, and who may find abroad, means of occupation and of success in life unattainable in Belgium. To this class belong foundlings, abandoned children, orphans, children of those condemned to infamous punishments, &c. But it should be clearly understood that the patronage and protection of government will follow these young emigrants to their new country, and that a return is always open to them if their hopes abroad should fail. The reform school will thus become a sort of nursery of material for colonization, both at home and abroad. Thus prepared, pursued by young and vigorous men, animated with a lofty sentiment of devotion, the work of colonization, which would surely fail if intrusted to a few miserable artizans, men generally weakened by privations, idleness and vice, would, we are confident, be crowned with full success. The pupils sent from our preparatory schools would accomplish a mission analogous to that of the hardy pioneers who patiently laid the foundations of the grandeur of the United States, by opening to the population which followed in their footsteps abundant sources of labor and of gain.

One of the greatest difficulties in the organization of reform schools is undoubtedly the finding of capable and devoted officers, willing to associate in the reform undertaken by government. To overcome this difficulty it has already been contemplated, as has been mentioned above, to establish at Ruysselede a school of foremen and overseers, like the institutes of Mettray and of Horn, and the normal schools of Switzerland. Economical consideration caused the postponement of this plan, which however might shortly be resumed by the help of the advantages of this institution, without additional expense. The captains and assistants of sections, and the monitors of the workshops and schools, already form a sort of preparatory class of all necessary classes of officers; whose members might be employed not only at Ruysselede, but also at any auxiliary or similar establishments hereafter to be created. To assist and encourage this arrangement, the most capable and deserving members of this class might be admitted to attend the course of instruction in the normal schools, or in the agricultural, arboricultural, or horticultural schools recently erected under the patronage and with the assistance of government. This would prove a valuable stimulant and reward of emulation, and one from which the reform school would reap a rich return. This object, held out to legitimate ambition, would be the crowning feature of the system which we are seeking to apply; a system which aims at the reformation and reinstatement in society of the numerous population of young pariahs who have scarcely any other prospect in life than an alms-house, a prison, or an early death.

The arrangement for prolonging the stay of the children in the reform schools will not only tend to insure their reformation, but will also secure the return, by their labor, of part at least of the expenses of their education and apprenticeship. Its result will be that these expenses will be strictly limited within the amount of the public appropriations. We have already seen that in 1852, the finances of the school had been established upon a footing so economical as to require the administration of the institution to use its own income to cover its expenses. If, as we hope, this requirement has been satisfied, the economical problem of the establishment of reform schools may be considered solved. Henceforward these institutions may be established upon a satisfactorily stable foundation, and there need be no hesitation in allowing them all the development of which they are capable.

78. *Conclusion.*

To judge of the reform school at Ruysselede, and to appreciate the results obtained there up to this time, it is necessary not to lose sight of the date of its establishment, and the short time since the entrance of the first pupils. Its experience is hardly begun; the foundations are laid, but they are yet to be submitted to the test of daily practice. If the expectations of government have hitherto been realized and even surpassed, in some respects, this result must chiefly be attributed to the devotion and zeal of the committee, the director, of the officers generally; but it is far from this point to definitive success; and to attain this without miscarriage, requires a steady perseverance which nothing can discourage, and the firm resolve to overcome the difficulties and obstacles which can not fail to present themselves.

When the agricultural department shall be on a thorough footing, it will be proper to extend and perfect it so as to bring the amount of production up to the demands of the population. The stable, the dairy, the piggery, the poultry-yard, should furnish regular profits. The inexperience of the young beggars who had never handled a tool before in their lives, their idleness, which great pains were necessary to overcome, their vicious and enfeebled constitutions which had to be built up, were so many obstacles which must be taken into account. But now that these embarrassments are in great part removed, that the school and the farm have a definite organization, that the pupils have acquired, with the habit of discipline, a degree of strength and skill, undoubtedly the attention of the authorities can be more particularly directed to financial matters, and can take cognizance of many details hitherto necessarily neglected.

The workshops in process of organization will also help to lessen the expense of the establishment. The combination of mechanical and agricultural labor will afford opportunity to vary occupation and to distribute them accordingly to the fitness and future interests of the pupils. Each of these should learn at least one trade completely, and the rotative method at present introduced in the farm-work is accommodated to this design of the apprenticeships.

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REFORM SCHOOL AND FARM

FOR

JUVENILE CRIMINALS, AT RED HILL, NEAR REIGATE.

THE Reformatory School and Farm, at Red Hill, near Reigate, in the county of Surrey, was established in 1849, by the Philanthropic Society, the oldest association in England, and one of the earliest of its class in Europe, having been founded at London in 1788, to provide a refuge, and the means of industrial, moral, and intellectual instruction for juvenile criminals, and the destitute offspring of convicted felons. The first step taken by the society was to collect in a hired house, in the neighborhood of London, known as St. George's Fields, some dozen children, under a master-workman and his wife, whose duty it was to overseer their labor in some simple branch of handicraft industry. Gradually the plan was enlarged so as to embrace three houses, under the charge of a master-workman—one devoted to shoemaking, the second to tailoring, and the third to carpentry, until the whole was merged into one great establishment, surrounded by a high wall, with a chapel, residences for the officers, and workshops for tailors, shoemakers, brushmakers, basket-makers, printers, carpenters, &c. The destitute and criminal youth—at first of both sexes, but afterwards the girls were excluded—were here received and instructed in some useful trade, as well as in the elementary branches of education, and then bound out as apprentices to master-workmen in the city. The institution, by its measure of success, demonstrated the practicability of making a favorable change in the personal, industrial, and moral habits of neglected and criminal children, but it did not adopt from time to time modifications of its system, and especially, did not supply the deficiencies of family discipline and influence, in which the worst habits of this class of children have their origin. As the population of the city spread to and around the premises, its location became unhealthy, and objectionable on other grounds.

In 1846, Mr. Sidney Turner, now the resident chaplain, and manager, came into the active management of the institution, and gradually effected a change in its plan of operation. In company with Mr. Paynter, a police magistrate, and Mr. William Gladstone, the treasurer of the society, he visited the Mettray colony near Tours, as well as other industrial schools on the same general model; and on their return, a plan was devised for a reformatory school, in which farm-labor should be the principal, and the trades and handicrafts the secondary occupations of the inmates. After some difficulty in procuring an eligible situation, an estate of about 140 acres, known as the Red Hill farm, near Reigate, in the county of Surrey, on the Brighton Railway, was obtained on a lease of 150 years, with the privilege of purchase at any time, on specified terms. Buildings were erected for a dwelling-house for the director, a farm-house and appurtenances, a chapel, school-room, and two lodging houses, each capable of accommodating fifty-six children and their overseers.

The school at Red Hill was commenced in April, 1849, by the admission of three lads; and in the course of two months of fifteen more, mostly above fourteen years of age, and from country districts. At the close of the year there had been admitted sixty-five boys, including those which were at the institution in London. The following sketch of a visit to Red Hill within a year after it was opened, which was originally published in Chambers' Journal, will throw light on the organization and practical working of the institution.

On alighting at the Red Hill station, we were received by a neat young groom, who drove us in a small vehicle, very carefully and well, over a mile and a-half of roughish road to the chaplain's residence, into which we were politely ushered by another youth, who announced us to our host.

"Surely," I said when that gentleman arrived, "neither of those lads were ever convicts?"

"Yes," was the reply; "one was convicted once—the other, who is from Parkhurst, twice; but they are both so thoroughly reformed, that we trust them as fully as we do any of our other servants—some times with money to pay small bills."

On advancing to a sort of balcony to look around, we found ourselves on the top of one of that low range of eminences known as the Surrey Hills, with, if not an extensive, a cheerful and picturesque landscape to look upon. Immediately to the left stood a pretty group of buildings, comprising the chapel, a school-room, and two houses, each to contain sixty boys; the foundation-stone of the first having been laid by Prince Albert no longer ago than the 30th of April. These unpretending but tasteful Gothic edifices, relieved, as they were, by a back-ground of thick foliage, which stretched away at intervals to the boundaries of the estate, gave a sylvan, old-English character to the scene, which will doubtless be endeared to the memory of many an emigrant when laboring out his mission in the Antipodes. In front, in a dell, beyond a cutting through which the South-Eastern Railway passes, and half-hidden by tall trees, the farm-house in which the boys, now on the farm, are accommodated, partially revealed itself; while beyond, a cottage, in which the bailiff of the estate lives, was more plainly seen.

Dotted about the farm—of which our terraced point of view afforded a perfect supervision—were groups of juvenile laborers steadily plying their tasks. One small party were grubbing a hedge, their captain or monitor constructing a fire-heap of the refuse; a detachment of two was setting up a gate, under the direction of a carpenter; a third group was digging a field of what we afterwards found to be extremely hard clay; and a fourth was wheeling manure. We could also see flitting to and fro, immediately about the farm-house and offices, several small figures, employed in those little odd jobs that the "minding" of poultry, the feeding of pigs, the grooming of horses, and the stalling of oxen, entail upon the denizens of a farm-steading. The systematic activity which pervaded the whole estate, and the good order in which every thing appeared, bespoke rather an old-established than a recently-entered farm.

Having been gratified with this scene, we descended, under the guidance of our reverend host, to take a nearer view of the operations. On our way, he informed us that the extent of the farm is no more than 140 acres; but that, small as it is, he hoped, with some additions readily obtainable, that as many as 500 boys would be eventually trained upon it. It appears to have been admirably chosen for the purpose. These acres include every variety of soil, from light sand to the stiffest of clay, the generality of it consisting of ferruginous marl, the color of which doubtless gave the name to the hill over which it is chiefly spread. The more stubborn part of the estate will not only supply what is chiefly required—labor—but will also be the means of instructing the pupils in the proper method of cultivating consolidated soils; while the modes of dealing with lighter land will be exemplified in the more friable sandy earths.

While approaching the nearest knot of young laborers, it happened that the recollection of a visit I had paid some years ago to the town-house of the society arose vividly in my mind. I remembered well, that although generally healthy, some of the boys seemed pale, and when you addressed them, answered furtively, and did not look straight into your face. But the ruddy, smiling countenance which was now turned up to return the pastor's greeting, formed a striking contrast to what I had noticed on the previous occasion. It beamed with health and pleasure: the first due to a free life in the country, changed from a pent-up existence in town; and the latter to the affable kindness of his treatment. The boy was "puddling" (ramming earth round the foundation of) a gate-post, and replied to certain suggestions respecting his mode of doing his task in a frank, fearless, but perfectly respectful manner. We passed on to the hedge-grubbing. This is hard work, and the boys were plying away manfully. Will lent force to every stroke of the pick, and every incision of the ax. The moment the director came in sight, a smile rose to every face. A large, spreading, obstinate root was giving a couple of the young grubbers a vast deal of trouble, and the superior, supposing the boys were not going about their task in the best manner, suggested an alteration in their plan. It was pleasing to see, instead of a servile or a dogged acquiescence in this hint, that the elder lad at once gave his reasons for the mode he had chosen for unearthing the root. A short argument ensued between the master and pupil, which ended in the decision that the latter was right. This showed the terms on which these two individuals—who might be described as antipodes in station, in morals, and in intellect—stood towards each other. The law of kindness (the only code practiced here) had brought both into perfect *rapport*. No restraint existed, except that imposed by propriety and respect. The monitor or captain of this group was also "drawn out" by our *cicerone* to explain the means by which he kept up ventilation in the burning heap which he was replenishing with refuse. This he did not manage very scientifically, but in a manner which showed he thoroughly understood the principles of combustion, and that his mind, as well as his hands, were engaged in the task.

At Red Hill free intercourse is cultivated and courted. No discipline is enforced which involves punishment so severe as to be much dreaded, and not the slightest restraint upon personal liberty is imposed. Any boy is free to leave the farm if he chooses to make his escape; there is neither wall, nor bolt, nor bar to hinder him. Five instances only of desertion have occurred since the school has been in actual operation. Of these misguided youths, who were all of the youngest class of inmates, three have returned of their own accord, begging to be again admitted; two others were sent back by their friends, the desire of seeing whom was the motive of their elopement. Although the labor is severe, the clerical chief has managed to instill into those under his charge a patient endurance, if not a love of it, and a tolerance of the restraints it imposes, far superior to the temptations of the miserable lawless liberty of their previous career of crime. It should, however, be remarked, that the lads in the Farm School have all suffered for their offenses, by imprisonment, or some other penalty, before their admission to it, and come mostly as volunteers under the impulse of repentance, and a desire to do better for themselves. The "colons" of Mettray, on the contrary, are all "détenûs"—are literally convicts still under the sentence and restraint of law.

"Those boys whom we have left," I remarked, "are possibly the best-disposed in the school, and never were deeply dyed in crime?"

"On the contrary," was the reply, "among them are youths who have not only been frequently convicted and imprisoned for felonies, but were, before coming here, habitually addicted to faults which the laws do not punish. They seldom spoke without an imprecation, were frequently intoxicated, and were guilty of other vices, which one would imagine their youth precluded them from indulging in. Yet you now find them expressing themselves with propriety, and conducting themselves quite as well as most of the farm-boys in this parish."

At the extremity of the estate, beyond the bailiff's house, was a party of younger boys digging a field of obstinate clay nearly as hard as unbaked brick. The superintendent, who directed their operations, gave them a good character for perseverance, and added, that he was some times surprised at the aptitude displayed by the boys when farm-tools were first put into their hands. Although their previous mode of life proved they could never before have been used to delving, draining, trimming hedgerows, &c., yet the intelligence many of them displayed when set about such work for the first time caused their instructor—whose former experience had lain among country parish apprentices—to marvel greatly. The truth is, the schemes and contrivances—criminal though they were—in which these lads were forced to engage to relieve the miseries of their old mode of life, have a tendency to sharpen their wits and brighten their intellects. As the most hardened metal takes the highest polish, so these youths, when thoroughly reformed and trained, are most often the brightest workmen.

To each their benignant pastor gave a kind word, even if it were one expressive of disapprobation for some fault; of which he pointed out the evil consequences with such plain and convincing reasoning, that the delinquent expressed contrition either in words or by a more expressive, because more spontaneous, look. He had manifestly tried to study each character, and adapted his arguments to suit its peculiarities, using such means of cure as were most efficacious for the special moral diseases under which the patient happened to labor.

In this lies the true secret of all reformatory efforts undertaken for the young. As in medicine, so in morals much depends upon adapting the remedies to the character and kind of disease. To bring every sort of mental obliquity under one mode of treatment, or one set of rules, is as irrational as if a physician were to treat his patients in classes, and administer to each class the same physic. Nothing can be more plain, than that, to cure immorality, the moral sentiments must be addressed; and this is impossible, or at most ineffectual, where the peculiarities of each moral ailment is not studied, and where any system of general routine is followed.

Conversing on this topic, we arrived at the farm-house, where we saw the scholars engaged in a variety of home duties—from baking and storing bread to mending stockings, in which useful avocation we detected two juniors in an outhouse.

In the evening, at six, the boys were assembled in the school-room for instruction and prayers. An additional interest was occasioned by the circumstance of the resident chaplain having only the day before returned from a second visit to Mettray. After a prayer, and the reading and exposition of an appropriate chapter from the Testament, he gave the assembly an account of what he had seen, and read the answer to an address he had taken over to the Mettray boys from themselves, which we translate as follows:

"THE BOYS OF THE AGRICULTURAL COLONY AT METTRAY TO THE YOUTHS OF THE PHILANTHROPIC FARM-SCHOOL.

"DEAR FRIENDS AND BROTHERS IN THE LORD: Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Turner, your respected directors, have come to visit our colony, and we can hardly tell you how much pleasure we felt when Mr. Gladstone, after speaking to us about the farm-school, read to us your address.

"Thanks, dear friends, for this generous impulse of your hearts. You have well understood our feelings. Yes, we are—we shall always be—your brothers. The same love of what is good animates us both.

"Tears of joy and thankfulness glistened in our eyes as we heard your kind wishes for us; and our honored and excellent directors, the Viscount de Courteilles and M. Demetz, have been equally moved by them. Your sentiments are indeed noble and Christian.

"Dear brothers, we all owe much to God, who has directed the honored friends by whom both we and you are superintended. Do you pray—let us pray—for the founders of both our schools. Let us pray for their happiness, and for the welfare of the asylums which they have opened. When you kneel down each night before God, think of us in France, who, on our part, will add to our petitions a prayer for you in England.

"Like us, you say you have erred—you have known trouble. But like us, too, you have resolved to have done with your past life of disorder. You will succeed in this, dear friends, for the providence of God has sent you enlightened and Christian friends. You have found in Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Turner what we have found in our worthy founders and directors. Let us follow their lessons. So shall we march among the foremost in the path of honor and virtue in which they lead us.

"Dear friends, we form this day an affectionate alliance with you—one that shall last. The ring which our directors send will be the substantial symbol of this union of our hearts with yours. You will see these words engraved on it, 'God, honor, union, recollection'—words which are our motto. Let them be also yours. Let us be grateful. Let us join together in strife against what is evil. Let us support one another in what is good. Let us love each other to the end.

"Dear friends and brothers, health and happiness to you all.

(Signed by the elder brothers and monitors,)

"Lanos, Bellonet, Angey, Mauchin, Guy, Josset.
Mari, Collot, Souvigne, Hebert, Chevalier."

This was, the bearers of it were assured, the veritable composition of the subscribing boys. It was read on this occasion amidst the most profound attention. When the assembly broke up, the lads separated to their play-ground in an orderly manner. The young groom, however, departed for the stable to prepare the vehicle for our departure; for our most interesting visit was nearly over.

In a parting conversation with the resident chaplain, he told us that thirty-six reformed boys had already been sent to Algoa Bay; and that, despite the storm of disaffection raised in Cape Colony against the introduction of convicts, the lads were well received. They had scarcely stepped on shore, before every one of them was engaged, and the accounts since received of them were highly favorable.

Although the important results which will assuredly flow from this experiment can only be carried out by the extension of its plans, yet large numbers of pupils in such establishments would, for the reasons we have given, be an evil. Centralization and generalization would be as inevitable as they are much to be dreaded. To do any good, the mind of each boy must be influenced separately; and in a large school, this would be impossible for one superintendent to accomplish. The Philanthropic School is now within manageable bounds, and the chaplain knows each lad almost as intimately as he does his own children; but when the establishment is extended to 500 pupils, as is contemplated, much of his influence over individuals will cease. To obviate this, it is intended to make each "family" consist of sixty individuals, guided by a master (with an assistant) and his *wife*. The softening restraint instinctively imposed by the mere presence of a woman—setting aside her higher influences—will be most beneficial. Much—*all*, we may venture to say—will, however, depend upon the tact, temper, demeanor, and patience of these most important functionaries. It is here, indeed, that the point of difficulty in effecting the reformation of vicious habits and impulses in the young presents itself. Nearly all reformatory *systems* have failed from the unskilfulness, from the want of long-suffering forbearance, and of prompt but kindly firmness, on the part of those to whom the task of reformation has been confided. It is the possession of these qualities by the reverend principal, in an eminent degree, which has brought about the pleasing state of things we have described at the Red Hill Farm, and we look with some anxiety to the time when, notwithstanding his general supervision, the smallest of his functions will have to be delegated.

As we arrived at the Red Hill railway station for our return journey some time before the train started, we employed the interval in making inquiries as to the character the Philanthropic boys bore among their neighbors, who, we were previously informed, had at first looked upon the new colony with dread.* Every account we received was, we are happy to find, favorable: the ex-criminals had not occasioned a single complaint.

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* A bargain had nearly been concluded at one time for a farm to the north of the metropolis; but so great was the horror of the contiguous gentry, that one of them actually presented the society with a donation of £1000, on condition that the scene of reformatory operations should be removed; and accordingly it was shifted to Surrey.

BELGIUM.

IN the educational history of Belgium, the advocates of the right and duty of the State to interpose its authority to aid parents, neighborhoods, and municipal bodies in establishing schools of different grades, and subjecting them to constant, vigilant, and intelligent supervision, and thus protecting itself against incompetent teachers and the consequences of parental and municipal neglect, can find abundant, if not wholly conclusive arguments against the claims of the church on the one hand, and of the unabridged and unaided liberty of parents in the education of children on the other. Certain it is, that at no period of the history of Belgium, has education been made at once so comprehensive and universal as while under governmental organization and inspection. During the undisputed supremacy of the Catholic church—and no country in Europe has remained so firm to its traditional faith and the authority of the church of Rome—while it enjoyed the advantages which result from the doctrine and example of a learned and pious clergy, and from numerous monastic and other religious institutions—there was a large body of the people uninstructed. On the union of the territory which now constitutes the kingdom of Belgium, with Holland, under the designation of the kingdom of the Netherlands, the king undertook to extend over it the system of public education which was commenced in Holland under the auspices of the "*Society for the Public Good*" in 1784, and adopted by the government in 1806, and which had resulted in diffusing over the whole country a high degree of popular intelligence.

The new system of public schools began to operate in the Belgic provinces in 1817, when a Normal school was established at Liege, and during the twelve years from that time to 1829, the progress and quality of popular education was greater than at any former period, and greater than in the twelve years following, during which the system was broken up, and the church and the voluntary system again prevailed. The number of children who attended the elementary schools in the winter of 1817, was 152,898; and in the winter of 1828, they amounted to 247,496, being an increase of 94,589. In 1817 the salaries paid by the government to teachers in the rural communes, was 157,580 francs; in 1828, 488.150 francs, showing an increase of 330,570 francs. During this period, 1,146 school-rooms, and 668 houses for teachers were erected, or thoroughly repaired and fitted up. Well organized schools, under competent teachers, were established in nearly every commune, and the whole were subjected to a vigilant and intelligent inspection, and improvement was rapidly and universally extending. Antiquated and awkward routine was replaced by rational and pleasing methods of teaching; uniformity of class-books was introduced; normal classes and associations of teachers were established for the professional training of all who applied to teach in the popular schools; in short, the whole plan of proceeding was regular, thorough, and responsible, through a system of inspection, examination, reports, and full publicity.

The popularity of the system of elementary schools was destroyed by the efforts of the government to control the institutions of secondary and superior education, and especially by the measures adopted to enforce a Protestant influence from Holland into institutions supported by the Catholics, who constituted a large majority of these provinces.

In 1816 the king issued a decree for the organization of the upper branches of public instruction. By this decree three universities were created—at Louvain, at Ghent, and Liege—each to possess the five faculties, of theology, jurisprudence, medicine, mathematical and physical sciences, philosophy and letters.

In 1822, an edict was published forbidding all persons to exercise the functions of schoolmaster in the higher branches of education who had not been authorized by the central board of instruction; and by a decree of 1822, this edict was extended to all associations, civil and religious, and all persons were forbidden to take vows in any religious fraternity, without permission of the government.

In 1825 all independent schools and seminaries were suppressed, and a philosophical college was established at Louvain, in which all who were destined for the ecclesiastical state were required to pass two years in study as a necessary condition for admission into any episcopal seminary.

This movement was followed by a loud demand for liberty of instruction, of the press, and of worship on the part of the Catholics, and finally a concordat was concluded with the court of Rome and the government of Holland, in virtue of which the episcopal theological seminaries were again opened, and the bishops left at liberty to provide at their own discretion for the instruction of the pupils.

In 1830 the Nassau dynasty was banished from Belgium, and a constitutional monarchy was formed, under which the equal liberty of all creeds and religious communities was guarranteed, and the entire liberty of instruction proclaimed.

The practical adoption of this principal was productive of great immediate injury to primary education. The best schools in all the large cities, which had grown up under the fostering care of the government, and the stimulus of constant and intelligent inspection, and the exclusion of incompetent teachers, were broken up, and their places supplied by a large number of private and parochial schools, too small in the attendance of pupils to admit of a thorough system of classification as to age and proficiency, and too limited in resources to command the services of well qualified teachers. The societies of teachers and friends of education which had sprung up for the encouragement and improvement of the profession, and for the production and use of good books, were discontinued, and a period of public apathy succeeded, in which broken down tradesmen, and men who had proved their unfitness for other work requiring activity and culture of mind, found employment as teachers, and especially in schools where there was no longer any organization enforced by the local authorities as a test of qualification for the business of instruction. "In ten years," said one of the most intelligent school officer's in Brussels in 1840, "education has gone back in this country one hundred years." "The contrast between Holland, as it now is, and Belgium, in educational matters, is striking," remarks an intelligent traveller in 1842. "Nothing can be more deplorable than the mockery of education, which the people in the rural districts are satisfied to let teachers, or those who profess to be teachers, practice."

So rapidly was Belgium sinking below its former position, and in the scale of European nations, in the condition of popular education, that the attention of government was arrested, and the well-directed efforts of individuals were enlisted to apply the remedy. The public mind was used by a series of popular tracts "on the condition of primary instruction and the necessity of improvement," from the pen of M. Ducpetiaux, who also published in 1838 an elaborate work on primary instruction in which the schools of Belgium were contrasted with those of Prussia, Saxony, Holland, France, and Switzerland. A course of normal instruction was provided in connection with a private seminary of M. Vandermaelon in 1839, and societies of teachers were again formed to assist in establishing a system of public schools. So thoroughly were a portion of the Catholic bishops satisfied that the contest which had arisen between the ultra liberal and the ultra church party—the one excluding all religious instruction and all clerical officials from the schools, and the other not only making religion an element in family and school education, but making every teacher an ecclesiastic, and subjecting the schools entirely to clerical inspection and control as a part of the organization of the church, was highly detrimental both to the cause of religion and education—that in 1842 they gave in their adhesion to an organic law, which, while it secures to the whole people a sound secular education, provides for religious instruction, and guarrantees to the clergy a high degree of influence in the schools.

The system of public instruction in Belgium embraces,

1. Primary schools, including day schools for children of the usual school age in other countries, infant schools or asylums, and Sunday schools and evening classes for adults, whose early instruction has been neglected.

2. Superior primary or high schools in all the large towns.

3. Secondary or intermediate schools, called athenæa, preparatory to the university.
4. Normal schools, to qualify teachers both for elementary and secondary schools.
5. Superior schools or universities, with faculties, of theology, law, medicine, and philosophy.
6. Special schools for industrial education, and particular classes.

1. Primary Instruction.

The system of primary instruction established in 1842, embraces three classes of schools—primary, superior, and normal. Every commune (the smallest territorial and civil subdivision of the State) must have at least one public elementary school, unless the instruction of all the children is provided for to the satisfaction of the government, in private endowed, or denominational schools. These schools must be free to the poor, and can be made free to all, by vote of the communal council.

The studies in the primary or elementary school, includes religion and morals, reading, writing, the scheme of weights and measures as defined by law, the elements of arithmetic, geography, and the French, German, or Flemish language, according to the locality of the school. Instruction in religion and morality is placed under the direction of ministers of the sect to which the majority of the pupils belong. Children belonging to other communions need not attend during such instruction if their parents object.

The schools are established and managed by the communal council, or administrative authorities of the villages and cities, subject to the supervision of the government, through cantonal and provincial inspectors.

An inspector is appointed by the king, through the minister of public instruction for each canton or judicial district, on the nomination of the provincial council, whose duty it is to visit at least twice in every year all the schools in the district, and furnish a detailed account of them to the provincial inspector. The cantonal inspector holds his office for three years, and is paid a per diem sum for his services. He must keep a regular journal of his visits, in which he must enter the results of his observation. He must also hold a conference of all the teachers in his district once in three months, for examination and discussion of their methods of teaching, and text-books used.

An inspector is also appointed for each of the nine provinces, whose duty it is to visit all the schools of the province once in the year, preside at the cantonal conferences of teachers, make an abstract of the journal or register of the cantonal inspectors, and submit a complete report of the condition of primary instruction in the province to the minister of the interior at Brussels. The provincial inspectors assemble once a year as a central commission, under the presidency of the minister of the department.

The teachers must be chosen from among candidates, who have for two years at least, and with approval, pursued the studies of a normal school, either of the State or, if private, of one that has submitted to the inspection provided for in the law. Every teacher must receive a certificate of qualification from a board consisting of a lay and clerical member, the former appointed by the State, and the latter by the ecclesiastical authorities. He may be dismissed by the provincial inspector on consultation with the communal council.

The cost of the primary schools is borne by the communes, and included in their taxation. The provinces only interfere when the appropriation made by the commune is equal to the product of two centimes per cent. of the sum paid in direct taxes. The grants of money by the legislature are specially designed for establishing infant, Sunday, evening, and apprentices' schools. When the government is satisfied through the provincial inspector, that the instruction given by endowed, or private schools, is adequate to the wants of the commune, it may relieve the commune from the obligation of supporting a public school.

2. Superior Primary Schools.

The law of 1842 provides for a superior elementary school in every large city, which, by the act of 1850, were connected directly with the next higher grade of schools in the system of public instruction. In 1846 there were twenty-six of these schools; in one of the best in each province, a normal course was provided for teachers of the schools below.

3. Secondary, or Intermediate Schools.

Prior to 1850, in most of the cities and large towns, there were one or more institutions, known as athenæum, Latin school, gymnasium, &c., some of them public and some private, some under lay and others under ecclesiastical control, some for day and others for boarding pupils, and all designed to supply a middle course of instruction between the primary school and the university. In 1850 a law was passed to provide a class of public schools under the name of athenæum and secondary schools, to meet the double purpose, of preparation for higher literary studies, and for the practical pursuits of life. The schools are of two grades, higher and lower intermediate schools. The higher grade, known as athenæum, includes two sections, one for classical and the other for industrial instruction. Pupils, destined for collegiate studies, have a course of six years, in which prominence is given to the ancient and modern languages, and studies which are preliminary to the lectures and professional studies of the university. This course is similar to that of the gymnasia of Germany. Pupils destined for either of the four special schools of arts, engineering, mines, or war, have a course of four years, which include, in the lower grade, linear and mechanical drawing, surveying, and other applications of geometry; and in the higher, mathematics, mechanics, chemistry, and the elements of industrial economy. This course resembles that of the real schools of Germany.

4. SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION.

Higher instruction is dispensed by four universities; two supported by the State, at Ghent and Liege; two being free of all governmental control, one at Louvain, avowedly and intensely Catholic in its tone and management, and the other at Brussels, founded by an association, and professedly free from all denominational bias—the religious instruction of the pupils being left to parents, and the ministry of the several denominations, with which the pupils are connected. Each university is composed of four faculties—law, medicine, science, philosophy and letters; to these, at Louvain, there is a faculty of theology and canonical aw. In 1850 there were about 1,400 students in the several departments of the four universities.

There are two academical degrees—that of *candidate* and *doctor*, which are bestowed, not by the university, but by a board of examiners, composed of men eminent for learning and science; each faculty or department having its separate sub-board, which is appointed by the king annually, two being nominated by the senate, two by the lower house, and three by the ministers of the government. This board hold its session at Brussels, and awards after a public examination, (*concour*) certificates and titles to those who are possessed of the greatest scientific and literary knowledge, without reference to the place, institution, or teachers, when this knowledge and ability has been acquired. The degree of *doctor* is accessible only to those who pursue the professional studies of law, medicine, or theology, and can not be conferred on any one who has not received the degree of *candidate*.

5. INDUSTRIAL AND SPECIAL INSTRUCTION.

Industrial instruction is given in institutions of three grades; higher instruction in the special schools of arts and manufactures and mines, attached to the university of Liege, those of civil engineering and of arts and manufactures annexed to the university of Ghent, and the superior institute of commerce at Antwerp; intermediate instruction in the industrial departments attached to all the athenæa and high schools; primary instruction in the industrial schools for workmen.

The preparatory school at Liege is intended to qualify pupils for the special schools for public service. The course of study, occupying two years, includes all the studies necessary for preparing mining engineers, practical chemists, and mechanics. The course in the special mining school, occupying three years, includes courses in applied mechanics, mineralogy and geology, industrial inorganic chemistry, industrial natural philosophy, exploration and working of mines, assaying, metullurgy, industrial architecture, mining, legislation and industrial economy. A diploma of mining engineer is delivered to those who pass the requisite examinations, and the pupils of the school are first examined for vacant places in the corps of engineers. The special school of arts and manufactures is divided into two sections, one for instruction in the applications of science to chemistry and mineralogy, and the other for the construction of machines. The course of study in the former occupies four years, and in the latter, three. Pupils passing the required examination receive the diploma of civil engineer of arts and manufactures, or of engineer and machinist. The number of pupils in all these schools, for the academic year 1852-3, is 84; there being 42 in the preparatory school, 11 in the mining school, 16 in the school of arts and manufactures, 15 others, pursuing different courses.

The special school of arts and manufactures at Ghent is organized similarly to that at Liege, but is not yet in operation.

The superior institute of commerce at Antwerp, is also not yet in operation. It is intended to teach the science and art of commercial business.

Youth are prepared for the higher special instruction in the industrial department of the higher intermediate schools, or in the lower intermediate schools; with which two grades, the following institutions may also be classed, namely: the industrial schools of Ghent, Liege, Verviers and Huy; the provincial special school of commerce, industry, and mines, of Hainault; the provincial special school for master miners, attached to the college of Charleroi; the industrial and literary school of Verviers; the State veterinary and agricultural school at Cureghem-lez-Bruxelles, and the schools of navigation at Antwerp and Ostend. Here may also be classed the intermediate agricultural and horticultural schools established by government in 1849 and 1850, either by arrangements with municipal authorities for connecting special departments with the existing schools, or by agreements with private persons to convert farms or gardens into special schools. These are of two classes; 1, those designed to instruct the sons of land-owners, farmers, &c., in agricultural science; and 2, those designed to train good master-workmen.

Of the first class, are

	Number of pupils.
The agricultural department of the school at Tirlemont,	15
“ “ “ “ “ “ “ Chimay,	27
“ “ “ “ “ industrial school at Leuze,	39
“ “ “ “ “ “ “ “ Verviers,	16
“ “ “ “ la Trapperie,	22
“ “ “ “ Bergen-op-Zoom,	30
“ “ “ “ the school at Oostacker,	25
“ horticultural school at Genelbrugge-lez-Gand,	27

Of the second class, are

The practical horticultural school at Vilvorde,	29
“ “ agricultural “ “ Ostin,	22
“ “ “ “ “ Rollé,	25
“ school for making farm tools at Hain-Saint-Pierre,	12
Whole number of pupils,	289

The total expense of these schools is $24 923.31, of which they receive from the State, $21,445.33.

Primary industrial instruction is given in the following schools:

1. The school of arts and trades at Tournay, to which children are admitted to the number of about 80, at 12 years of age and upwards, and where they are taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, and at the same time the beginning of a trade. There are for this purpose five workshops; of carpentry, weaving, construction, founding, and hose-making.

2. The manufacturing or working schools, 740 in number. Lace-making alone is taught in 586 schools; lace-making, knitting, and sewing, in 135, and other trades in 19. In 479 of them, the pupils receive primary literary instruction, with the industrial training.

3. The apprentice schools, numbering 78. Their design is either to introduce new improvements into the trades of weaving and spinning, or to introduce new branches of industry, and thus to obviate the difficulties arising from the introduction of spinning machinery into the country, where a large portion of the population were accustomed to support themselves by spinning by hand.

The military school is one of the most important military establishments in Belgium, and is for the purpose of training officers of all arms. The instruction is given by a corps of not less than 18 professors, 14 tutors, and 6 masters. The pupils, whose number varies from 100 to 125, are divided into several sections, as follows: 1. Infantry and cavalry sections, (course two years,) composed of subalterns and young men admitted on public examination. 2. School proper, (course two years,) composed of pupils admitted by the minister of war, after examination. 3. School of application, (course two years,) of sub-lieutenants of engineers or artillery, who have been through a two years' course in the school. 4. Section of artillery and engineer officers, (course two years,) of lieutenants of artillery and engineers not having studied in the school, and placed there to complete their studies. 5. Section of Turkish pupils, comprises young officers of different arms of the Turkish army.

The military school corresponds with the three schools in France, called the school of Saint-Cyr, the polytechnic school, and the school of application (at Metz.)

Military schools of lower grade are: 1, the school for soldiers' children at Lierre, (course occupying five years, besides preparatory class,) composed of legitimate children of officers, subalterns, soldiers, and assistants in the war department, intended to furnish graduates fitted to become subalterns in the army; 2, regimental schools organized from the staff-officers, and forming part of the regimental battalion of reserve. These schools are of two grades, and are for the instruction of ignorant soldiers. There also exist regimental evening schools, for subalterns, corporals, and soldiers.

Thus the Belgian army has a social organization, quite as fit for peace as for war. The officers who leave their military employment easily find civil occupations. Veteran subalterns, on account of their habits of order and discipline, are in request, as policemen, on railroads, as postmasters, and town tax-gatherers; the countrymen who return home after two years of service, carry with them the benefits of the primary course of instruction. Thus the army, a means of security in war, becomes an element of improvement in peace.

There are two veterinary schools, one at Brussels and the other at Liege. The school at Brussels embraces a complete course of instruction in agriculture.

The government supports three "conservatories" of music, the oldest at Liege, with an average attendance of 250 pupils; a second at Ghent, with 300 pupils; and the largest at Brussels, with 400 pupils. Every third year a *concour* is held for competition in musical composition, in which the successful competitor receives 10,000 francs for the purpose of a four years' tour in other countries. Besides these national schools, there are several local schools of music, by which a taste for this delightful art is made general.

There are over fifty schools and halls of drawing, painting, sculpture, and architecture, supported or aided by the government, with over 7,000 pupils. A national exhibition is held every three years, at which numerous prizes and premiums are offered for competition.

A national observatory is maintained at Brussels, and learned societies for the cultivation of science, literature, and the arts, are liberally patronized by the government. The geographical institute of M. Vandermaden has largely contributed to the advancement of this branch of useful knowledge.

In 1848 there were fourteen public libraries, each having over 10,000 volumes, and all comprising 509,100 volumes.

The government supports two schools for deaf mutes, one for the blind, six for orphans, and three for young criminals.

NORMAL INSTRUCTION.

Normal instruction commands much and increasing attention from the Belgian government. Besides two normal schools for teachers and professors in the secondary and superior schools, there exist for primary teachers the following public normal schools, so called because entirely or partly supervised and supported by the government:

Two government normal schools, established and supported by the State.

Seven normal departments annexed to higher primary schools, established and assisted by government.

Seven episcopal normal schools, established and maintained by the Catholic bishops, but which have been placed under government supervision and regulations, and are assisted by its funds. Besides these public normal schools, there are others not officially recognized as public schools, viz.: the remaining episcopal normal schools, and private establishments.

There are also periodical meetings of public primary teachers, which resemble the teachers' institutes of the United States, and which are called conferences. They are conducted by government officials, and partly at its expense, except a few which have been established by the teachers themselves.

Teachers' Conferences.—These are held quarterly during vacations, and conducted by the provincial or cantonal inspectors. Their sessions are short, generally occupying only one day, and never more than three. They are held within and for certain specified districts, the public primary teachers within which are legally bound to attend them. Instruction is given by the presiding officers, and by the teachers themselves, on various educational subjects; the inspectors usually presenting theoretical and scientific matter, and the teachers explaining their various methods, &c. The subjects to be discussed at each conference are announced at the close of the preceding one, and each teacher is expected to prepare himself on them at home. Private teachers and non-professional persons are not allowed to attend the meetings, unless for special reasons. An allowance of from twenty to thirty cents a day is paid to each member.

Each teacher is required, after his return home, to prepare an account of the proceedings of the meeting, and to forward it to the inspector, who selects the best for registration, as the public record of the meeting. Libraries for the use of the teachers belong to each conference, furnished generally in the first instance by the government, and sometimes increased by the contributions of teachers and other friends of education. The number of works in these libraries in 1848, was 5,908, in 9,352 volumes, estimated to be worth about $2,700.

The number of teachers' conferences held in Belgium was, in 1846, 349; in 1847, 460; and in 1848, 635. The average length of their business sessions was five or five and a half hours.

The exercises at one of these conferences were as follows, according to the record made by one of the teachers present:

> The session commenced at 10 A. M., with the signing an attendance-roll by the teachers, and a short prayer by the religious inspector. The civil inspector, who with his ecclesiastical brother presided over the meeting, proceeded to complain that sundry teachers had failed to present their reports of the previous meeting, and caused them to promise to do it. Several reports of that meeting were then read.
>
> At this point the provincial inspector, M. Courtois, arrived, and assumed the direction of the business.
>
> The order of the day being the best methods of teaching writing, M. Danlie gave an account of his method. His first lessons are for the position of the body and of the pen, and then follows the tracing of straight lines, curves, and ovals, from copies upon the blackboard.
>
> M. Chevalier d'Herchies exhibited his method at the board; it consists in drawing various ovals, from which he forms the different letters.
>
> M. Courtois, the inspector, recommended the use of pasteboard slates for young pupils, as a means of teaching them early to write, and of keeping them occupied and still. He further remarked that instruction in writing might be divided into three parts; 1, formation of straight lines, curves, and ovals; 2, formation of letters, and of words in large and half text; 3, writing fine hand, and formation of different characters and forms of letters.

The session was suspended at twelve, and recommenced at half-past two.

The provincial inspector notified the teachers that they must keep school all the year; and it would become his duty to take rigorous measures with those who should not fulfill this obligation. In reply to M. Deltombe, who said that sometimes there were no scholars, he said that he could not admit that there was a total want of scholars, that such a case was impossible.

M. Masson explained his method of teaching the catechism. He uses the simultaneous and individual methods, with explanations from time to time.

The ecclesiastical cantonal inspector, M. Brohez, said that these explanations should be prepared under the direction of the priest. He also directed the attention of the teachers to the pronunciation of the catechism and of the prayers.

An exercise followed in teaching French, and another in grammar, the latter being a method of distinguishing between the verbal adjective and the present participle, illustrated upon the board.

Cantonal inspector Dubois gave instructions in agriculture and gardening, and recommended the teachers to communicate such instruction to their pupils.

The provincial inspector stated a curious fact with regard to transplanting the beet. It has two rows of roots, always pointing to the east and west, which in transplanting must be set in the same direction, otherwise the growth of the plant is much retarded.

Inspector Dubois informed the meeting that the next conference would take place October 19, 1848, and that the subjects for discussion would be methods of teaching arithmetic, and the first three centuries of Belgian history.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The inspection, management, and instruction of the State normal schools, the normal departments annexed to the higher primary schools, and the episcopal normal schools, are substantially alike in the three classes of institutions.

All candidates for entrance are examined by a "jury," composed partly of government inspectors and partly of the instructors. The courses of study occupy three years. The pupils are usually required to board and lodge upon the school premises. The regular graduates have the first right of examination for vacant situations as public teachers; and government, besides the assistance given to the normal schools by erecting buildings and bearing part of the current expenses, appropriates about $12,500 annually in sums usually of about $40 each, to the assistance of a number of the more meritorious pupils.

Schools of application are annexed to all the normal schools, being the primary schools of the neighborhood. The following account of the government normal school at Lierre will give a fair general representation of these schools.

NORMAL SCHOOL AT LIERRE.

Candidates for admission to the normal school at Lierre, are first examined by the provincial inspectors of primary instruction, who are charged in particular to see that none are admitted who are inflicted with any deformity or infirmity incompatible with the occupation of teaching. If suitable, they are then examined by a committee or "jury" of two inspectors and three of the faculty of the school, in reading, writing, religion, and morals, the grammar of their own and of the French language, the four fundamental rules of arithmetic, the legal system of weights and measures, the elements of geography, particularly of Belgian geography, and the principal facts of Belgian history.

The course of study at Lierre, occupying three years, embraces the following subjects, viz: religion and morals; sacred and church history; reading, writing, and book-keeping; grammar and composition; geography and history, especially of Belgium; arithmetic, and its business applications; elements of theoretical geometry, and of mapping, land measuring, and leveling; elementary algebra; portions of the natural sciences applicable to every-day life; agriculture and horticulture, grafting and pruning; theory of education, pedagogy and methodology; hygiene, as applicable to children and schools; elements of constitutional law; knowledge of the constitution and laws of Belgium, and of the most usual forms under them, church and school laws; singing and plain chant, playing the organ, harmony and accompaniment; drawing, linear, ornamenal, and architectural. During the third year of the course, the pupils are required to teach the different classes in the schools of application or practice annexed to the normal schools, under the direction of the professors of pedagogy and methodology.

The instructors are a director and sub-director, who are ecclesiastics, nine professors, an adjunct professor, and a gardener-demonstrator; the full complement of pupils being 150.

The pupils board and lodge within the institution, and the entire apportionment of their time, occupations, and recreations, is under the control of the school authorities. The whole establishment is under the hygienic supervision of a physician, who directs any measures necessary for the health of the inmates.

There is a library of educational works, which receives a copy of every work published by government, or by its assistance, and some philosophical and chemical apparatus, maps, and models for drawing.

The entire expense of the school at Lierre, for 1848, was $6,943.22, of which $5,395.33 was paid for salaries.

There is an examination at graduation, according to the result of which three grades of diplomas are given. At present (1848) all the graduates of the normal schools are employed in teaching. The government continues the bounty above mentioned, for three years after graduation, to such recipients of it as do not find their salaries, as public teachers, sufficient for their support.

FEMALE NORMAL EDUCATION.

There are fifteen religious establishments and boarding-schools for females designated by government, to a certain number of pupils in which a bounty is paid similar to that given to male normal pupils. These institutions are under government inspection, and the beneficiaries in them are employed as public teachers after their graduation. The course of study is substantially similar to that of the normal schools for males, some studies, as geometry, agriculture, horticulture, and constitutional law, being omitted, and needlework and the application of drawing to the cutting and fitting of dresses being added.

HOLLAND.

The first impulse to improved primary instruction in Holland was given by some benevolent citizens of Groningen, who, in 1784, founded the "Society for the Public Good." They were encouraged and supported by the government, in their efforts to prepare school books, train schoolmasters, and excite attention to the state of schools. In 1806 the various edicts and regulations, published from time to time, were digested into a law, by M. Van der Ende, and were generalized for the guidance of the country at large. The French invasion curtailed the means applied to education; still the Dutch system was, as early as 1812, thought worthy of a special inquiry by Commissioners deputed from the University of Paris, at the head of which was M. Cuvier, who reported with no small admiration respecting it. On the restoration of peace in 1814, the first care of the king was directed to the state of public education, which by the law of that year was restored to the footing of 1806. Every province was divided into educational districts, and a school inspector was appointed to each district. A provincial School Commission was named from among the leading inhabitants of each province to co-operate with the inspectors, and a sum was charged on the budget for the educational outlay, from which the traveling expenses of the commissioners were to be defrayed.

The governments of the towns and provinces were charged with the cost of maintaining the schools, for which they provide in their local budgets. Teachers were classified into four ranks, according to their qualifications and acquirements, and received their appointments from Government. A sum was also destined for the encouragement of associations of teachers, who were to meet to confer on school management, to visit each other's schools, and to study in common the duties incumbent on their profession.

The best known methods of instruction were sought and tried, and a catalogue of the best school books was prepared and published in the course of the year 1814.

In 1825, a prize was offered by the "Society for the Public Good," for the best essay on the advantages and disadvantages of the monitorial system, and the simultaneous or class system of instruction. The prize was awarded to a dissertation by M. Visser, Inspector of Primary Schools in Fries-land. In this essay, the system of monitorial instruction is analyzed,

3. Secondary or intermediate schools, called athenæa, preparatory to the university.

4. Normal schools, to qualify teachers both for elementary and secondary schools.

5. Superior schools or universities, with faculties, of theology, law, medicine, and philosophy.

6. Special schools for industrial education, and particular classes.

1. PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

The system of primary instruction established in 1842, embraces three classes of schools—primary, superior, and normal. Every commune (the smallest territorial and civil subdivision of the State) must have at least one public elementary school, unless the instruction of all the children is provided for to the satisfaction of the government, in private endowed, or denominational schools. These schools must be free to the poor, and can be made free to all, by vote of the communal council.

The studies in the primary or elementary school, includes religion and morals, reading, writing, the scheme of weights and measures as defined by law, the elements of arithmetic, geography, and the French, German, or Flemish language, according to the locality of the school. Instruction in religion and morality is placed under the direction of ministers of the sect to which the majority of the pupils belong. Children belonging to other communions need not attend during such instruction if their parents object.

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The teachers must be chosen from among candidates, who have for two years at least, and with approval, pursued the studies of a normal school, either of the State or, if private, of one that has submitted to the inspection provided for in the law. Every teacher must receive a certificate of qualification from a board consisting of a lay and clerical member, the former appointed by the State, and the latter by the ecclesiastical authorities. He may be dismissed by the provincial inspector on consultation with the communal council.

The cost of the primary schools is borne by the communes, and included in their taxation. The provinces only interfere when the appropriation made by the commune is equal to the product of two centimes per cent. of the sum paid in direct taxes. The grants of money by the legislature are specially designed for establishing infant, Sunday, evening, and apprentices' schools. When the government is satisfied through the provincial inspector, that the instruction given by endowed, or private schools, is adequate to the wants of the commune, it may relieve the commune from the obligation of supporting a public school.

2. Superior Primary Schools.

The law of 1842 provides for a superior elementary school in every large city, which, by the act of 1850, were connected directly with the next higher grade of schools in the system of public instruction. In 1846 there were twenty-six of these schools; in one of the best in each province, a normal course was provided for teachers of the schools below.

3. Secondary, or Intermediate Schools.

Prior to 1850, in most of the cities and large towns, there were one or more institutions, known as athenæum, Latin school, gymnasium, &c., some of them public and some private, some under lay and others under ecclesiastical control, some for day and others for boarding pupils, and all designed to supply a middle course of instruction between the primary school and the university. In 1850 a law was passed to provide a class of public schools under the name of athenæum and secondary schools, to meet the double purpose, of preparation for higher literary studies, and for the practical pursuits of life. The schools are of two grades, higher and lower intermediate schools. The higher grade, known as athenæum, includes two sections, one for classical and the other for industrial instruction. Pupils, destined for collegiate studies, have a course of six years, in which prominence is given to the ancient and modern languages, and studies which are preliminary to the lectures and professional studies of the university. This course is similar to that of the gymnasia of Germany. Pupils destined for either of the four special schools of arts, engineering, mines, or war, have a course of four years, which include, in the lower grade, linear and mechanical drawing, surveying, and other applications of geometry; and in the higher, mathematics, mechanics, chemistry, and the elements of industrial economy. This course resembles that of the real schools of Germany.

M. Cousin, in a Report to the minister of Public Instruction in France, in 1836, "*on the state of Education in Holland,*" while giving a preference to the school law of Prussia, in its provision for Normal Schools, and the classification of public schools, and especially for the support of the higher class of primary schools, assigns the palm to Holland, in the matter of school inspection.

> "The provincial boards of primary instruction, with their great and various powers, constitute, in my mind, the chief superiority of the Dutch over the Prussian law. They resemble the *Schul-collegium*, which forms a part of every provincial consistory in Prussia; but they are far better, for the *Schul-collegium* is not composed of inspectors. It sends out some of its members to inspect as occasion requires, but inspection is not its function. It judges from written documents, and not from ocular proof, and is generally obliged to rely upon the sole testimony of the member sent to inspect; whereas in Holland, the board, being both inspectors and judges of inspections, are on the one hand better judges, in consequence of the experience they have acquired in a constant routine of inspection; and, on the other hand, they are better inspectors, by what they learn at the board, when acting as judges and governors, a combination eminently practical, and uniting what is almost every where separated.
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> Every inspector resides in his own district, and he is bound to inspect every school at least twice a year, and he has jurisdiction over the primary schools of every grade within the district. Without his approval no one can either be a public or a private teacher; and no public or private teacher can retain his situation, or be promoted, or receive any gratuity; for no commissioner has any power in his absence, and he is either the chairman or the influential member of all meetings that are held. He is thus at the head of the whole of the primary instruction in his particular district. He is required to repair three times a year to the chief town of the province, to meet the other district inspectors of the province, and a conference is held, the governor of the province presiding, which lasts for a fortnight or three weeks, during which time each inspector reads a report upon the state of his district, and brings before the meeting all such questions as belong to them. As each province has its own particular code of regulations for its primary schools, founded upon the law and its general regulations, the provincial board examines whether all the proceedings of the several inspectors have been conformable to that particular code; they look to the strict and uniform execution of the code; they pass such measures as belong to them to originate, and they draw up the annual report which is to be presented to the central administration, and submit such amendments as appear to them necessary or useful, and of which the central administration is constituted the judge. Under the Minister of the Interior there is a high functionary, the Inspector-general of Primary Instruction; and from time to time a general meeting is summoned by the government, to be held at the Hague, to which each provincial board sends a deputy; and thus, from the Inspector-general of the Hague, down to the local inspector of the smallest district, the whole of the primary instruction is under the direction of inspectors. Each inspector has charge of his own district, each provincial board has charge of its province; and the general meeting, which may be called the assembly of the states-general of primary instruction, has charge of the whole kingdom. All these authorities are, in their several degrees, analogous in their nature; for all are public functionaries, all are paid and responsible officers. The district-inspector is responsible to the provincial Board of Commissioners; and they are responsible to the Inspector-general and the Minister of the Interior. In this learned and very simple hierarchy the powers of every member are clearly defined and limited."

Mr. George Nicholls, in a "*Report on the condition of the Laboring Poor in Holland and Belgium,*" to the Poor Law Commissioners of England, in 1838, remarks:

"The measures adopted in Holland to promote the education of all classes have apparently resulted from the conviction that the moral and social character of the people, their intelligence, and their capacity for increasing the resources of the country, must in a great measure depend upon the manner in which they are trained for the fulfillment of their several duties. The state has not rendered education actually obligatory upon the municipalities, neither has it required evidence of the education of the children of the poorer classes by any educational test; for a sense of the importance of education pervades the entire community—it is sought by the poor for their children, with an earnestness similar to that observed in the more wealthy classes in other countries; and in Holland, the direct interference of government is confined to regulating the mode of instruction, by means of an organized system of inspection.

This system, however much it may interfere with the liberty of the subject, has certainly some advantages. The poor, who have no means of judging for themselves, have, in the certificate given to every schoolmaster, some sort of guarantee that the person to whom they send their children is not an ignorant charlatan, professing to teach what he has never learned, and in the next place it secures to those who devote themselves to the profession a much higher rate of remuneration than they would receive if, as with us, every broken-down tradesman could open a school when able to do nothing else. This exclusion of absolute incapacity is also a means, and a very powerful one, of raising the character of the profession in popular estimation. With us, any man can become a schoolmaster, as easily as he can a coal-merchant, by simply putting a brass plate on his door; but in Holland, (and the same system is very general in Germany,) some degree of study is rendered indispensable, and the whole class, therefore, stand out from the rest of the community as men of superior attainments, and enjoy that consideration which men of cultivated minds everywhere command, when not surrounded by coadjutors below rather than above the common level.

In Holland, there is no profession that ranks higher than that of a schoolmaster, and a nobleman would scarcely, if at all, command more respect than is paid to many of those who devote their lives to the instruction of youth. The same personal consideration is extended to the assistant teacher or usher. We were much struck with the difference in the position of persons of this class abroad, from their lot at home, when we were visiting a school for the middle classes at Hesse-Cassel. The school contained 200 children, and was supported partly by the town and the government, and partly by the payments of the scholars. The charge for daily instruction was from 1s. 8d. to 5s. per month. The children were distributed in six classess—to each class a separate master or assistant teacher. We were conducted over the establishment by the head master or director of the school, and the first thing which drew our attention was the extreme ceremony with which we were introduced to each of the assistant masters, and the many apologies made by the professor for interrupting them, although but for a moment, in their important labors. We saw those treated as equals, who are in England often estimated as only on a rank with grooms or upper servants.

The most important branch of administration, as connected with education, is that which relates to school inspection. All who have ever been anxious either to maintain the efficiency of a school, or to improve its character, will appreciate the importance of the frequent periodical visits of persons having a knowledge of what education is, and who are therefore able to estimate correctly the amount and kind of instruction given. Let a school established by voluntary subscriptions be placed to-day upon the best possible footing, if no vigilance be exercised by its founders, and if the master be neither encouraged nor stimulated to exertion by their presence, his salary will speedily be converted into a sinecure, and the school will degenerate to the lowest point of utility."

Professor Bache, in his "*Report on Education in Europe*," in 1838, to the Trustees of Girard College, remarks:

"The system of primary instruction in Holland is particularly interesting to an American, from its organization in an ascending series; beginning with the local school authorities, and terminating, after progressive degrees of representation, as it were, in the highest authority; instead of emanating, as in the centralized systems, from that authority. A fair trial has been given to a system of inspection which is almost entirely applicable to our country, and which has succeeded with them."

The school system of Holland consists of a brief law, of only twenty-three articles, drawn up by M. Van der Palm, the distinguished Oriental schollar, in 1801, and modified by M. Van der Ende, in 1806, and a series of Regulations drawn up by the state department having charge of this subject, to carry out the provisions of the law. The law was so wisely framed, and was so well adapted to the spirit, customs and habits of the people, that it has survived three great revolutions: first, that which converted the Batavian Republic into a kingdom, at first independent, but afterward incorporated with the French empire; next, that which dethroned Louis, restored the house of Orange, and united Holland and Belgium in one monarchy; and lastly, the revolution which again separated the two countries, and restricted the kingdom of the Netherlands to its former limits. During these thirty years, the law of 1806 was never interfered with; it could only be altered by another law, and when the government, in 1829, in order to please the Belgian liberal party, brought forward a new general law, which made some very objectionable changes in that of 1806, the chambers resisted, and the government were obliged to withdraw the bill.

The following provisions will show the spirit and scope of the law, and general regulations.

IX. "The school inspector of the district is authorized, in concert with the local authorities, to intrust one or more known and respectable persons with a local inspection, subordinate to his own, over the school or schools, and also over all the teachers of both sexes in the place, whether village, hamlet, or otherwise, and for each separately.

X. In all the more considerable towns and places, the parochial authorities, in concert with the school inspector of the district, shall establish a local superintendence of the primary schools, which shall consist of one or more persons, according to local circumstances, but so as each member shall have a particular division, and all the schools in that division shall be confided to him individually. These persons shall collectively constitute, with the school inspector of the district, the local school board.

XVII. No one shall be allowed to become a candidate for a vacant school, or to establish a new one, or to give private lessons, without having first obtained a certificate of general admission. In like manner, no one shall be allowed to teach any other branch than that for which he shall have received a certificate of general admission.

XXII. The instruction shall be conducted in such a manner, that the study of suitable and useful branches of knowledge shall be accompanied by an exercise of the intellectual powers, and in such a manner that the pupils shall be prepared for the practice of all social and Christian virtues.

XXIII. Measures shall be taken that the scholars be not left without instruction in the doctrinal creed of the religious community to which they belong; but that part of the instruction shall not be exacted from the schoolmaster.

XXX. The provincial[*] and parochial authorities are recommended to take the necessary steps:

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[*] The constitution of Holland is somewhat singular, and would seem at first sight to be founded upon what perhaps may one day be recognized as the true theory of representative government, that of progressive, intermediate elections. The rate-payers elect the *Kiezers*, the *Kiezers* elect the *Raad* or town council, the town council elect a certain proportion of the members of the provincial governments, and the provincial governments elect the lower chamber of the *States General*, or House of Commons.

The States-General consist of two chambers. The upper chamber is somewhat of a House of Lords, but not hereditary. The members, fifty in number, receive 250*l*. per annum for traveling ex-

1. That the emoluments of the teacher (principally in rural parishes) be settled in such a way that his duties, when creditably performed, may obtain for him a sufficient livelihood, and that he be rendered as little dependent as possible, by direct aid, upon the parents of the children who frequent his school.

2. That attendance at the schools be strictly enforced, and that they be kept open throughout the year."

REGULATIONS RESPECTING THE EXAMINATION OF THOSE WHO DESIRE TO BECOME TEACHERS OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

I. The teachers shall be divided into four classes, or grades, according to the amount of knowledge required, and according to the examination which they shall have passed.

VII. In these examinations, the object shall be to ascertain not only the extent of knowledge of the candidate in the branches he is proposing to teach, but also his power of communicating that knowledge to others, and especially to children.

VIII. Before proceeding to the examination properly so called, the examiners shall endeavor to ascertain, in conversation with the candidate, his opinions on morals and religion; the sphere of his attainments, both with regard to the most indispensable parts of primary instruction, and to foreign languages and other branches which he proposes to teach; together with his aptitude to direct, instruct, and form the character of youth.

IX. The subjects of examination shall be as follows:

1. Reading from different printed and written characters; and whether with a good pronunciation and a proper and natural accent, and with a knowledge of punctuation.

2. Some words and phrases designedly wrong shall be shown to the candidate, to ascertain his knowledge of orthography.

3. To ascertain his acquaintance with the grammatical structure of the Dutch language, a sentence shall be dictated to him, which he shall analyze, and point out the parts of speech; and he must give proofs of a familiar acquaintance with the declensions snd conjugations.

4. The candidate shall write some lines in large, middle, and small hand, and shall make his own pens.

5. Some questions in arithmetic shall be proposed to him, confining this especially to such as are of common occurrence, and which shall be sufficient to show the dexterity of the candidate in calculations, both in whole numbers and in fractions. Questions shall be put to him on the theoretical parts, and especially on decimal arithmetic.

6. Some questions shall be proposed on the theory of singing.

7. Different questions shall be proposed relative to history, geography, natural philosophy, mathematics, and such other branches of knowledge as the candidate proposes to teach.

8. A passage in French, or in any other language in which the candidate wishes to be examined, shall be given to him to read and translate. A passage in Dutch shall be dictated to him, to be translated by him, either in writing or *viva voce*, into the language which forms the subject of the examination. He shall be required to give, *de improviso*, in the same language, a composition in the form of a letter or narrative, &c., all for the purpose of ascertaining the degree of acquaintance he possesses with the language in question, in orthography, grammar and punctuation.

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penses. The lower chamber, before the Revolution, consisted of 110 members, now but of fifty-five. The provincial governments are:

North Brabant,	42 members.	Friesland,	54 members.
Guelderland,	90 "	Overyssel,	53 "
Holland,	90 "	Groningen,	36 "
Zealand,	46 "	Dreuthe,	24 "
Utrecht,	36 "		

The members of these provincial governments are not elected by the town councils, but by the nobility; the town councils, and Kiezers of the country districts, nearly in equal proportions. General business affecting more than one province, is referred to one or other of two committees, or provincial cabinets, elected by the members of the provincial governments. On these committees one member sits for each province

X. The examination upon the acquirements of the candidate having been completed, the examiners shall proceed to inquire into his capacity for teaching; they shall question him as to the manner of teaching children to know the letters, figures, and the first principles; then reading, writing, and arithmetic. They shall then require him to relate some story or portion of history, in order to discover the degree of talent he possesses to present things to children with clearness and precision; care shall be taken, if there be a convenient opportunity, and if it be thought advisable, to have some children present, of different ages, and of different degrees of attainment, in order to ascertain more particularly his skill in practical teaching.

XI. Finally, the examiners shall propose some questions upon the principles to be followed in rewards and punishments; as also in general on the best methods to be adopted, not only to develop and cultivate the intellectual faculties of children, but most especially to bring them up in the exercise of the Christian virtues.

XII. When the examination is concluded, the examiners shall deliver to the candidate, who desires to obtain a general admission as a master, and has given proof of sufficient ability, a deed of that admission, according to the extent of his ability; and in this shall be stated, as distinctly as possible, the extent and the nature of the talents and of the acquirements of the candidate, as proved by his examination; and it shall declare the rank he has obtained, if it be in the first, second, third, or fourth class, and consequently such a general admission as shall give him a right to apply for the situation of a master, according to the rank which has been assigned to him. Finally, the said deed shall declare the branches of education, and the languages for which he shall have obtained the general admission.

XIII. The schoolmistresses or teachers of languages who shall have passed an examination, and have given sufficient proofs of their ability, shall also receive a deed which shall contain, besides a declaration of the extent and amount of their acquirements and talents, as proved by the examination, a general admission either for the office of schoolmistress or teacher of languages. That deed shall moreover expressly declare the branches of study and the languages which the person examined shall be entitled to teach.

XIV. All the deeds mentioned in the two preceding articles shall be alike throughout the whole extent of the republic, both in the matter and the form. If they are issued by a provincial board of education, they shall be signed by the president and secretary, and the seal of the board shall be affixed to them. The deeds issued by an inspector, or by a local board, shall be signed by the inspector only, or by the secretary of the local board.

XV. The certificates for the first and second class, issued by a provincial board, shall entitle those who obtain them to be masters in all primary schools, public as well as private, of the two classes, in all places throughout the republic, without exception; whereas the deeds issued by a local board shall confer no privilege beyond that locality.

XVI. The certificates for the third class, as well as those for the fourth or lowest class, shall confer the privilege of becoming teachers, except in schools established in places whose wants are proportioned to the rank and capacity of such masters, and which are situated within the jurisdiction of the provincial board.

XVII. In order that the provisions contained in the two preceding articles may be more easily carried into effect, the schools in small towns and less considerable places, more fully described in Art. 9 of regulation A, shall be classed by the different inspectors and by the provincial boards, into higher, middle, and lower schools, upon a principle hereafter provided. This classification, which shall be submitted to the provincial authorities for approval, shall be solely for the purpose of preventing the principal school falling into the hands of incompetent masters; while, at the same time, it leaves the power of placing a very able master over the smallest school.

XVIII. In the towns or places of greatest importance, no master of the fourth or lowest class shall be eligible to either a public or a private school. The local boards are even recommended to take care, as much as possible, that the tuition in the schools of their towns shall not be entrusted to any other than *masters of the first or second class.*

XXIV. A list containing the name, the rank, the nature, and the extent of the abilities of each of those who shall have obtained deeds of general admission as master, mistress, or teacher of languages, shall be published in the periodical work entitled 'Bydragen tot den Staat,' &c., (which is still published.)"

It is impossible not to see that the stimulating effect of a series of examinations of this character, before a tribunal composed of qualified judges, must produce a class of teachers for the work of primary instruction unequaled in any other part of the world. But the soul of the whole system is *inspection*, or in other words, active and vigilant superintendence,—intelligent direction, and real responsibility,—all of which are involved in the system of inspection carried out in Holland. Without inspection there can be no competent tribunal for the examination of teachers; without inspection, local school committees and conductors of schools would be irresponsible to public opinion, inert and negligent; without inspection there would be no person constantly at hand sufficiently informed upon the state of education to suggest the measures required for the promotion of its objects; without inspection there would be no diffusion of new ideas, no benefiting by the experience of others, no rivalry in improvement, no progress. The following extracts will show the manner in which the duties of inspection are provided for.

REGULATIONS FOR SCHOOL INSPECTORS, AND FOR THE BOARDS OF EDUCATION IN THE DIFFERENT PROVINCES.

II. "Each inspector shall make himself acquainted with the number and situations of the primary schools, and also with the state of primary instruction throughout the whole extent of his district. It shall be his duty to see that, besides the necessary number of ordinary schools, there shall be a sufficient number of schools for children of tender age, organized in the best possible manner, and also schools of industry. Finally, he shall take care, that proper instruction in all branches of primary education may be obtained, according to the circumstances and wants of the different parishes.

III. He shall make it his business to become personally acquainted with the different masters in his district, and with the extent of their fitness, and shall keep a note thereof.

IV. He shall make it his special business to excite and maintain the zeal of the masters; and for that purpose, he shall at fixed periods require a certain number of them to meet him, either at his own house or in other parts of his district, and as frequently as possible.*

V. The inspector shall be bound *to visit twice a year* all the schools in his district, which are directly subject to his supervision. He is hereby exhorted to repeat those visits at different times, either when a particular case calls for it, or for the general good.

VI. In visiting the schools which are under his direct supervision, he shall call upon the master to teach the pupils of the different classes in his presence, those which are in different stages of progress, in order that he may judge as to the manner in which the instruction is given and regulated. He shall also inquire if the regulations concerning primary instruction, as well as the regulation for the internal order of the school, are duly observed and executed; and he shall pay attention to every thing which he believes to be of any importance. At the conclusion of the visit, the inspector shall have a private conversation with the master or mistress, upon all he has observed: and according as the case may be, he shall express approbation, give them advice, admonish, or censure them, upon what he may have seen or heard. Every school inspector shall keep notes of all remarks and observations which he shall have made in the course of his visits, to be used in the manner hereinafter provided.

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* In compliance with the spirit of this article, societies of schoolmasters have been formed, under the auspices of the inspectors, at different times, in the districts of each province, which keep up a rivalry of improvement. They meet at stated times, generally every month.

IX. They shall pay particular attention to improve the school-rooms; to the education of the children of the poor, and especially in the villages and hamlets; to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; and to the schools being kept open and attended without interruption, as much as possible, during the whole year.

XVIII. The ordinary meetings of the boards shall be held in the towns where the provincial authorities reside, at least three times a year; the one during Easter week, the other two in the second week of July and October.

XXIV. At each ordinary meeting, each member shall give in a written report:—

1. Of the schools he has visited since the last meeting, stating the time of his visit, and the observations he then made regarding the state of the schools, in all the different particulars.

2. Of the meetings he has held of the schoolmasters for the purpose of communicating with them respecting their duties.

3. Of the examinations which have taken place before him of masters of the lowest class, and of the higher classes.

4. Of the changes and other events which shall have taken place in his district, relative to any school or schoolmaster, since the last meeting, and especially all vacancies of masterships, the delivery of deeds of call, nomination, or special appointment of every degree and of every class, setting forth the most important circumstances connected with them: the appointment of local inspectors in places of minor extent; the changes that may have occurred in the local school boards; the inspection of a new primary school or school of industry; the admission of any teacher of languages; the drawing up of any rules for the internal order of schools; the introduction of school books, other than those contained in the general list of books, in the private schools of both classes; the measures that have been taken to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; the measures that have been taken to secure the schools being uninterruptedly kept open and attended; any difficulties they may have encountered; the encouragement or otherwise which the masters may have met with; and the examinations of pupils in the schools. The inspector shall further point out the particular parts which he wishes to have inserted in the above mentioned monthly publication, (*Bydragen.*)

XXV. From these written documents and other private information, as well as from the written reports of the local school boards, (as mentioned in the following article,) every school inspector shall draw up annually, previous to the meeting held in Easter week, a general report on the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout his district. He shall state therein the reasons why he has not visited, or has not visited more than once, any particular school in the course of the preceding year. He shall state such proposals as appear to him deserving of attention, and which may tend to the improvement of primary instruction.

XXVI. In order that the school inspectors may not omit to mention, in their annual report, any of the particulars stated in the preceding article, the local school boards, or their individual members, in so far as concerns the schools placed under their individual inspection, shall draw up a report in writing, similar to that required from the school inspectors, before the end of February at latest.

XXIX. At the conclusion of the ordinary meeting held in Easter week, each board shall forward, or cause to be forwarded within the space of four weeks, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, besides the documents mentioned in the preceding article,

1. One of the two authentic copies of the annual general summary.

2. The originals of the general reports of the different members of the boards.

3. The originals of the annual written reports of the different local boards.

4. A detailed statement, taken from the report of each of the members, of the proposals which each board shall be desirous of bringing under the consideration of the next annual general meeting, or which it has been resolved to lay before the provincial authorities."

REGULATIONS RESPECTING THE GENERAL ORDER TO BE OBSERVED IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

I. "The primary schools shall be open without intermission the whole year, except during the times fixed for the holidays.

II. During the whole time devoted to the lessons, the master shall be present from the beginning to the end; he shall not be engaged in any thing which is unconnected with the teaching, nor absent himself from school, except for reasons of absolute necessity.

III. The master shall take care that the pupils do not unnecessarily go out of school; and especially that they be quiet and attentive; and, when in the play-ground, that they always conduct themselves in a peaceable, respectable, and modest manner.

IV. When the number of pupils shall exceed seventy, measures shall be taken for providing a second master or an under master.

V. The pupils shall be entered, as much as possible, at fixed terms in the course of the year.

VI. At the opening and at the breaking up of each class, a Christian prayer, solemn, short, and suitable to the occasion, shall be said daily or weekly. At the same time, a hymn, adapted to the circumstances, may be sung.

VII. The pupils shall be divided into three classes, each of which shall have its distinct place; and on every occasion when the school meets, each shall receive the instruction that belongs to it.

VIII. The instruction shall be communicated simultaneously to all the pupils in the same class; and the master shall take care that, during that time, the pupils in the two other classes are usefully employed.

IX. The instruction in the different classes, and in the different branches taught, shall be as much as possible conveyed by the use of the black board.

X. When the master shall think it advisable, he shall reward the most advanced pupils by employing them to teach some parts of the lessons to the beginners.

XI. The master shall take care that the pupils be at all times clean in their dress, well washed and combed, and he shall at the same time pay the strictest attention to every thing that may contribute to their health.

XII. The school-rooms shall be at all times kept in proper order; for that purpose they shall be ventilated in the intervals of school hours, and cleaned out twice a week.

XIII. An examination of each school shall take place at least once a year. Upon that occasion the pupils of a lower class shall be passed to a higher; and as far as circumstances will allow, rewards shall be given to those who have distinguished themselves by their application and good conduct.

XIV. When a pupil at the end of the course of study shall leave the school, if he shall have distinguished himself by the progress he has made and by his good conduct, a certificate of honor shall be presented to him.

XV. A code of regulations shall be drawn up for each particular school, and this, whether written or printed, shall be pasted on a board, hung up in the room, and from time to time read and explained by the master.

XVI. The said codes shall be issued by the authorities over each school; their object shall be, to regulate the hours of teaching and how these shall be divided among the three classes."

As the masters were prohibited from teaching any particular religious doctrine in the schools, the government, through the Secretary of State for the Home Department, addressed a circular letter to the different ecclesiastical bodies in the country, inviting them to take upon themselves, out of school hours, the whole instruction of the young, either by properly-arranged lessons in the catechism, or by any other means. Answers were returned from the Synod of the Dutch Reformed church and other ecclesiastical bodies, assenting to the separation of doctrinal from the other instruction of the schools, and pledging themselves to extend the former through their ministers of the different religious communions. On the reception of these answers, the government authorized the provincial boards of education:

"To exhort all schoolmasters to hand a complete list, every six months, of the names and residences of their pupils belonging to any religious communion to such as should apply for it; and to take care that their pupils attend to the religious instruction provided for them.

To invite the governors of orphan asylums and workhouses, and similar establishments, to second the measures which the authorities of the communion shall take in reference to religious instruction.

To exhort the school inspectors, and through them the local school boards, to co-operate, as far as possible, with the consistories and ministers in their efforts to give instruction in the doctrines of their religion, so long as they confine themselves to their special province, and do not interfere with the business of the schools or the authority of the persons intrusted with their management by the government."

Thus did the Batavian Republic provide that the children should be prepared for "*the exercise of all the social and Christian virtues;*" well knowing, that if the schools did no more than impart a knowledge of the material world, there might be profound ignorance of the good and the beautiful and of the true destiny of human nature.

On the practical operation of the provisions for religious and moral education, we adduce the following testimony. Mr. Kay remarks—

The law of 1801 proclaims, as the great end of all instruction, the exercise of the social and Christian virtues. In this respect it agrees with the law of Prussia and France; but it differs from the law of these countries in the way by which it attempts to attain this end. In France, and all the German countries, the schools are the auxiliaries, so to speak, of the churches; for, whilst the schools are open to all sects, yet the teacher is a man trained up in the particular doctrines of the majority of his pupils, and required to teach those doctrines during certain hours, the children who differ from him in religious belief, being permitted to absent themselves from the religious lessons, on condition that their parents provided elsewhere for their religious instruction. But, in Holland, the teachers are required to give religious instruction to all the children, and to avoid most carefully touching on any of the grounds of controversy between the different sects.

Mr. Nicholls says: "As respects religion, the population of Holland is divided, in about equal proportions, into Catholic, Lutheran, and Protestants of the reformed Calvinistic Church; and the ministers of each are supported by the state. The schools contain, without distinction, the children of every sect of Christians. The religious and moral instruction afforded to the children is taken from the pages of Holy Writ, and the whole course of education is mingled with a frequent reference to the great general evidences of revelation. Biblical history is taught, not as a dry narration of facts, but as a store-house of truths, calculated to influence the affections, to correct and elevate the manners, and to inspire sentiments of devotion and virtue. The great principles and truths of Christianity, in which all are agreed, are likewise carefully inculcated; but those points, which are the subjects of difference and religious controversy, form no part of the instructions of the schools. This department of religious teaching is confided to the ministers of each persuasion, who discharge this portion of their duties out of school; but within the schools the common ground of instruction is faithfully preserved, and they are, consequently, altogether free from the spirit of jealousy or proselytism. We witnessed the exercise of a class of the children of notables of Haarlem, (according to the simultaneous method,) respecting the death and resurrection of our Saviour, by a minister of the Lutheran church. The class contained children of Catholics, Calvinists, and other denominations of Christians, as well as Lutherans, and all disputable doctrinal points were carefully avoided. The Lutherans are the smallest in number, the Calvinists the largest, and the Catholics about midway between the two; but all appear to live together in perfect amity, without the slightest distinction in the common intercourse of life; and this circumstance, so extremely interesting in itself, no doubt facilitated the establishment of the general system of education here described, the *effects of which are so apparent in the highly moral and intellectual condition of the Dutch people.*"

Baron Cuvier, in his report to the French government in 1811, says:

> The means devised for the religious instruction of all persuasions are extremely ingenious, and at the same time highly appropriate, without involving them in dangerous controversy. The particular doctrines of each communion are taught on Sundays, in the several places of worship, and by the clergy. The history of the New Testament, the life and doctrines of Jesus Christ, and those doctrines in which all Christians agree, are taught in the schools on Saturdays, the day on which the Jews do not come to school, on account of their sabbath. But those truths which are common to all religions, pervade, are connected with, and are intimately mixed up with every branch of instruction, and every thing else may be said to be subordinate to them.

Mr. Chambers, of Edinburgh, in describing a visit to the public school of Rotterdam in the Edinburgh Journal, observes:

> Instruction is given in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history of Holland, Bible history, and singing. I made inquiry of the head master, if any religious (dogmatic) instruction was given in the school, and he answered there was not. The children belong to different religious bodies and attend their respective clergymen on stated occasions, for instruction in the doctrines and principles of religion. The Bible history which is taught in the schools comprises only parts, in the truth of which all parties agree. The great regularity and silence which prevailed, the extent of the gratuitous instruction conferred, and the harmonious congregating together in one school of so many children of different religious creeds, were circumstances which I could not pass over unmoved; my only wish that the mass of my countrymen could conveniently have been introduced to enjoy the scene.
>
> All the children of Holland may not, indeed, be at school at any given time, but every one goes to school at some time, and therefore there are none without education. This result is sensibly observed in the aspect of the Dutch towns. You see no bands of loose and disorderly children in the streets, such as offend the eye in the lower parts of almost every large town in Britain.

In all of the Dutch schools, habits of propriety, cleanliness, and order, are, not only in, but out of doors, strictly enforced, as well as practically illustrated in the manners of the teacher. Mr. Chambers quotes in a note the remark of a correspondent of the London Standard, that 'in no country is the mass of the people so religious, showing that the mode of education has not hurt religion."

NUMBER AND ATTENDANCE

OF PUBLIC, PARISH, AND OTHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN HOLLAND IN 1846.

Provinces.	Population Jan. 1st, 1843.	Public Parish Schools.	Scholars.		Schools on Special Foundations.	Scholars.		Private Schools.	Scholars.		Total Schools.	Scholars.		Total.	No. of Inspection Districts.
			Boys.	Girls.		Boys.	Girls.		Boys.	Girls.		Boys.	Girls.		
North Brabant..	402,858	294	22,068	15,118	12	363	735	73	980	3,218	379	23,406	19,066	42,472	9
Gelderland.....	371,877	327	26,461	19,686	19	1,306	926	41	1,349	738	387	29,116	21,350	50,466	10
South Holland..	564,791	254	23,771	19,489	40	3,477	3,167	149	4,964	3,454	443	32,212	26,110	58,322	8
North Holland..	467,733	280	18,943	15,194	36	2,983	2,652	199	5,740	5,428	515	27,666	23,169	50,835	9
Zealand........	159,915	138	10,597	7,377	..	....	....	15	962	556	153	11,559	7,933	19,492	5
Utrecht........	154,419	80	6,479	5,318	23	2,472	1,996	47	1,228	811	150	10,174	8,125	18,229	4
Overyssel......	246,837	344	22,010	16,962	3	89	109	11	284	259	358	22,383	17,330	39,718	6
Friesland......	212,040	209	17,627	15,547	7	388	366	15	1,137	809	231	19,152	16,722	35,874	9
Groningen......	189,714	195	16,347	13,276	19	1,173	911	34	2,325	1,750	248	19,845	15,937	35,782	6
Drenthe........	81,258	128	6,267	5,471	4	54	49	7	170	120	139	6,491	5,640	12,131	4
Limburg........	203,047	161	9,195	7,219	2	217	6	48	1,069	1,278	211	10,481	8,503	18,894	7
	3,053,984	2,410	179,760	140,657	165	12,522	10,917	639	20,208	18,411	3,214	212,485	169,885	*382,370	†77

* If to number of children (382,370) attending Public and Private Schools, which are strictly Elementary, there be added 1,300 scholars who were attending the "Latin Schools," and 1,800 scholars who were attending the Universities, we have 385,470 young persons receiving education, or one in every eight of the population.

† Several of these districts are again subdivided, and over each of these districts and subdivisions a permanent Inspector presides, and directs its primary education. So that there are 80 thoroughly efficient Inspectors, who are appointed by the government and paid for their services, and who report annually to the Inspector-General, and through him to the Minister of the Interior.

PRIMARY SCHOOL

AT

THE HAGUE, HOLLAND.

THE following description of a Primary School at the Hague, with some remarks on the classification of public schools is copied from Bache's "*Report on Education in Europe.*"

The definition of a primary school, as given in one of the regulations issued to complete the law, covers a wide field. According to it, a primary school is one in which youth is instructed in the first principles of knowledge, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, and the Dutch language, or the more advanced branches, such as the French, or other modern languages, or the ancient languages, geography, history, and other subjects of that description. There are several different kinds of schools, corresponding to different grades of instruction in these branches. Infant school instruction is included in the primary department, but it is not yet fully developed.

The lowest schools are those for the poor, (armen-scholen) and which are entirely gratuitous. The children enter at from six to seven, and from twelve to fourteen. As supplementary to them are evening schools, principally intended for revising former courses, and which should be attended until sixteen or eighteen years of age. As the attendance in these latter schools is not obligatory, the proportion of those who receive instruction in them, varies much in different localities.

The next are called intermediate schools (tusschen-scholen) in which the pupils pay a trifling fee.* Both these are, in general, public. Some have been established by the school committees, and after a few years have become self-supporting. The grade of instruction is rather higher than in the schools for the poor, but as the law does not prescribe any particular programme, it varies much in the different parts of Holland—a school which would be called intermediate in a small town, ranking below one of the gratuitous establishments for the poor, in one of the chief cities. The amount taught, depends, other circumstances being the same, upon the average age to which the children remain at school, and therefore varies also in different parts of the kingdom.

The next grade, or burgher school, (burger school) is, in general, a private establishment. It is distinguished from both the classes just enumerated by a larger fee,† and in general, by a higher grade of instruction; but while, in a single town or district, it is easy to perceive this gradation, yet it is scarcely possible to observe it on a comparison of the country at large. In some places, the last mentioned school is called the Dutch school, to distinguish it from the following class.

The school denominated the "French School," is the highest of the primary division, and is, in general, a private establishment, though frequently of the kind classed by law with private schools, but superintended in reality, by the local school committee itself. Besides the branches taught in the other schools, the courses of this embrace the French language, of which the pupils acquire a grammatical knowledge, and which they are enabled to speak with considerable facility. These schools prepare their pupils for entrance into active life, and serve also in some degree as feeders to the grammar or Latin schools. The instruction in French is not, however, an exclusive mark of this grade of institution, as the descendants of the French emigrants, constituting the Walloon congregations, continue the teaching of this language in the gratuitous schools for the poor, connected with their churches.

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* For example, in an intermediate school at Rotterdam, which I visited, eight cents a week.

† The school fee at the burgher school at Haarlem is between six and seven dollars a year.

While, in point of fact, there is not the regular fourfold division of primary instruction which thus appears, it is difficult to draw a separating line. The intermediate school connects the school for the poor, and the burgher school, while, in the burgher schools, the same branches are studied as in the French schools, except the French language. The less number of children under the charge of one master, the greater age to which the children in general remain at school, the generally greater capacity of the master, from the higher salary which his talents command, the greater family culture of the children before coming into and while in the school, render the average progress in the burgher school of a given place, superior to that in the intermediate school, and in this latter higher than in the school for the poor. I must say, however, that in more than one case, in the same place, I could detect no difference in the school itself, between the intermediate and the burgher school, except in the greater comfort of the accommodations of the latter; and I have already remarked that, in comparing the establishments of different places, the name is not an accurate guide to the grade of the school.

A sketch of the arrangement of the primary schools themselves would, I have thought, be rendered more compendious, without injury to its fidelity, by selecting for particular description one of the schools for the poor, which, as a class, rank higher in Holland than in any other of the European States, and engrafting upon the account of this, remarks on the methods of other schools; concluding by a brief statement of the particulars in which the intermediate, burgher, or French schools differ, in general, from the assumed type, or from each other.

Before doing so, however, there are some points fixed by the school regulations, which require notice. The first is, that the system of instruction must be that called simultaneous, or in which all the pupils of a class take part at once. In practice, this requires to be varied by questions adapted to individuals, and the classes, therefore, must not be too large. In the intermediate schools I found, more commonly, classes of from thirty to fifty, the lesser number being well adapted to the method. With a well trained master, and a class of moderate numbers, this kind of instruction is the most lively that can be imagined, and when judiciously varied, by questions put to all, but which only one is permitted to answer, it is also thorough.

The method of mutual instruction is not at all favored in Holland. A very decided and general opinion against it, appears early to have been brought about by the comparison of the English schools with their own. A prize was offered for the best dissertation on the subject, by the society for public utility, and taken by M. Visser, inspector of primary schools in Freesland. This excellent dissertation, which was published and widely distributed by the society, no doubt contributed to form or strengthen the opinion which prevails at this day.

The only approach to the monitorial system in the schools of Holland, is, that pupils who have an inclination to teach and who will probably become teachers, are put in charge of the lower classes of a school. Thus, also, some of the best monitors of the Borough-road School in London, are boys who are likely one day to follow the career of teaching. There is, however, a very wide difference between the use of a few apprentices to the profession, and that of a large number of monitors to give instruction. I had occasion to observe, however, that in many cases there was a want of life in the younger classes entrusted to these inexperienced teachers. If they are to be used, it would be better to employ them in classes which have some training, even though nearer the teacher's age and attainments.

The next point is in regard to religious instruction in the schools. There is unbounded toleration of religious creed in Holland, and while the necessity of religious instruction in the schools has been strongly felt, it has been made to stop short of the point at which, becoming doctrinal, the subjects taught could interfere with the views of any sect. Bible stories are made the means of moral and religious teaching in the school, and the doctrinal instruction is given by the pastors of the different churches on days appointed for the purpose, and usually not in the school-room.

The last point is in regard to the choice of school books. The publication of them is not left to open competition. Every book, before it can be used in a public school, must be submitted to the examination of the minister of the interior, acting, of course, by deputy, and if approved, is admitted to the list of books which may be used in the schools. From this list, the provincial board of primary schools select those which they consider best to be used in their province, and from their list the teachers choose such as they approve. In private schools, the teacher selects his own books, but he must report a list of them to the inspector.

There are two normal schools for the education of teachers for the primary schools, one at Groningen, established by the society for public utility, the other at Haarlem,* by the government. Formerly, all instructors were prepared in the different primary schools. They began to teach as early as twelve years of age, attending the evening school to make up their loss of time during the day. At sixteen, they had served their apprenticeship, and were admissible to the fourth grade of teachers. This method prevails still to a considerable extent, but as it has been found to produce rather routine than intelligent teaching, the two normal schools have been established to supply the defect.

The *material* of elementary intellectual instruction consists in most countries, of reading, writing, arithmetic, and a knowledge of the mother tongue, to which the geography of the country, and sometimes general geography, natural history, linear drawing, and vocal music are added. Special exercises of the perceptive and reflective faculties are also included in the more improved intellectual systems. While the material is thus nearly the same, nothing can be more different than the results produced by the schools, according to the use which is made of it. In some, the means are mistaken for the end, and if the pupil is enabled to read, write, and cipher mechanically, the school is supposed to have done its duty. In others, these branches are employed as the means of developing the intellect, as well as for the communication of useful knowledge; according as one or the other view is taken, the instruction is arranged in conformity with it. In Holland, the intellectual methods of Pestalozzi have taken deep root, and the enlightened state of public opinion, in regard to elementary education, prevents, in a great degree, a mechanical system of teaching

The plan of the school for the poor at the Hague, to which I now proceed, will justify this remark. To render it clear, I shall, even at the risk of dwelling rather long upon it, present first the essential features of the instruction; next show the chief steps in the entire course, from which a just idea of the character of the whole of it can be formed, appending to this, some remarks upon the methods of teaching, and the text books. Then, by separating the exercises of the classes, and attaching to each the number of hours devoted to it per week, I shall show that this is no theoretical programme, but one formed for practice; and this will further appear, by stating, in conclusion, some of the results which I witnessed at an examination of the pupils.

This school, I should remark, though ranking with the best of those which I saw in Holland, is not distinguished above several others of its class, and in its intellectual character, seemed to me decidedly below many of the intermediate schools, where the pupils are less numerous. It is therefore no exaggerated statement of what is obtained between the ages of six and twelve or fourteen. The subjects of instruction, including intellectual and moral, are—

Exercise of the perceptive and reflective faculties. Learning to read according to Prinsen's method, including the spelling of words and the analysis of words and simple sentences. The composition of simple sentences with printed letters A knowledge of the different kinds of printed and written letters. Writing from dictation for orthography. Correct reading of prose and poetry. Grammar of the Dutch language. Geography of Holland. History of Holland, including its chronology. Writing, beginning and ending with writing on the blackboard. Linear drawing. Arithmetic by induction. Mental and written arithmetic, with a knowledge of the Roman numerals. Practical Arithmetic, to decimal fractions inclusive. The theory of numbers. Moral and religious instruction. Vocal music.

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* Established in 1816.

As natural history does not appear either in this programme or in others of primary schools, I was at the pains to ascertain if any thing was taught in relation to a branch so eminently calculated to promote early religious impressions, and found that incidentally information was given on the habits of animals, and some of the phenomena of the physical world. It will be observed that in this school, as in general, physical training forms no part of the system. In Holland, the gymnastics, so popular in Northern Germany, have never been permanently introduced, even in the boarding-schools.

The nature and extent of the instruction in the branches enumerated above will be best understood by the folllowing list of progressive exercises:—

1. Exercises of thought, reason, and intelligence.
2. READING. Prinsen's Reading Tables. Vowels and consonants from the lettter-box. Composition of words on the reading-board. Explanation of words and simple sentences. Spelling from memory. Exercises in reading different printed and written characters. Simultaneous reading from a series of books graduated to the capacity of the class. Explanation of words met in reading. Composition of sentences on the reading-board. Writing from dictation for orthography. Correct reading. Composition of simple sentences.
3. GRAMMAR practically. Conjugation of verbs, &c. Parsing.
4. HISTORY of Holland and chronology.
5. GEOGRAPHY of Holland.
6. WRITING. Elements of writing on the blackboard. Writing on slates. Writing of numbers. Linear drawing. Writing on paper. Writing capital letters and large hand. Exercises of writing on the blackboard.
7. ARITHMETIC by induction. Mental arithmetic. Reading Roman numbers. Practical Arithmetic. Tables of moneys. Exercises in reading numbers. Decimal fractions. Tables of weights and measures. Theory of arithmetic. Elements of form.
8. MORAL AND RELIGIOUS instruction. Bible stories, &c.
9. SINGING.

In giving a short explanation of the exercises just enumerated, I shall not confine myself to the methods followed in this particular school, with all of which indeed I am not acquainted, but give them as in most general use, especially as I saw them practiced in the schools of Haarlem, which have the advantage of immediate contact with the seminary for teachers there, and the use of its pupils as sub-teachers.

The exercises of perception and reflection in frequent use, are those recommended by Ewald, and consist of a selection from various authors, as well as of many subjects on which the teacher is expected to be informed. The instruction is given orally, according to the following outline: The child is taught to observe and to speak correctly, by referring to objects which are about him. Knowledge of colors. Of some varieties of form, as round, square, &c. Naming of words of similar and contrary significations. Meaning of verbs in common use. Numerating by cubes. Knowledge of coins of the country, and their relative values. Division of time. To tell the time by a watch. To distinguish the true from the false. Questions on nature and art. Qualities of resemblance and distinction. Compound expressions, as "good day," "besides," &c. Witty sayings. Points of the compass. Lessons on weights and measures. On different metals. Articles of furniture in common use. Different daily occupations. The four ages of man. Different ranks of society. Proverbs and phrases. Riddles and charades. Fables. Honorable and dubious actions. Explanation of words.

Systems, in my opinion better than those of Lohr, are in use in Germany, but this enumeration shows what in general these exercises are in the Dutch schools.

The arrangements for teaching reading, according to Prinsen, are a spelling and reading-board, to be presently described, reading tables or progressive lessons printed and pasted upon boards, and a series of reading books, beginning with the simple vowel sounds, and rising to stories for children, who have a facility in reading. There is a manual also for the teacher to guide his lessons. The reading-board consists of a center-piece with horizontal grooves, or raised ledges forming grooves between them, into which small wooden prisms, having letters marked, or printed letters pasted upon them, may be placed. The vowels are arranged in compartments on one side of the center-piece, and the consonants on the other. The letter prisms have the same letter in different characters, capitals and small letters on four faces of the prism. This reading machine admits of a great variety of exercises in the mechanical arrangements concerned, in which the pupil takes part, such as composing simple words and sentences, and forming words from the letters composing them, which have been purposely disarranged.

The reading tables of progressive lessons are for the purposes of varying the exercises, of employing a number of children actively at the same time, and for habituating themselves to letters of the ordinary size. They are nine in number. beginning with single vowels, and terminating with words containing several compound sounds. All the combinations of letters used form words, as in Mr. Wood's plan, and the teacher is careful to require an explanation of every word, as it occurs. Prinsen's Primer enables the teacher to exercise the intelligence of his pupil, and to give a pleasing variety to his instruction. There are pictures attached to each letter, representing some object or action, the word referring to which contains the vowel sound to be taught. The teacher draws from the pupil a description of the object or action, and when he has obtained the right word, makes the child remark the sound of the letters. Of course, these sounds are not the arbitrary names of the letters, and hence, this method, to distinguish it from the spelling method is called "Phonic," (lautir.) The reading-machine and primer are used in conjunction. When the pupil has reached the "first reading-book," the teacher reads aloud, that the former, by following, may receive ideas of emphasis. The reading-books contain stories entirely adapted to the comprehension of children, giving them ideas of common trades and operations, of moral sentiments, of nature, of the biographies of the worthies of Holland, familiar letters, &c. They contain various forms of printed and written alphabets.

In learning to write, beginning upon the slate or board, one of the pupils composes a word upon the reading-board, with written letters; then, all name the sounds, and copy the forms upon their slates. In some schools, elementary forms are first taught, and the letters of large hand next written. In others, small hand is made the basis; and in the school for the poor, at the Hague, the teacher has ingeniously sifted out the elements of a current small hand, and begins with them. From the best examination I could give these methods, it appeared to me that the hand begun by small letters was not so good as that begun by large ones.

A specimen of the method of teaching geography will be seen by following the outline of Prinsen's description of Haarlem, used as a guide to the teachers of that place. It begins with the elementary notions of the manner of representing a country on a map, the points of the compass, &c. Then follows the position of the town, its size, and the character of its environs, number of its inhabitants, most remarkable buildings, the divisions of the town, the gates, principal canals and streams, principal streets, and particulars relating to remarkable buildings in them, and minute descriptions of the more important places in the several wards, from the first to the sixth. After thus becoming acquainted with the geography of the town and its environs, that of Holland follows. In some schools, the old method is still in use.

Arithmetic is chiefly taught according to Pestalozzi's method, cubical blocks being used for numeration. These have been superseded in some countries, by the arithmetical frame spoken of before, which answers the same purpose of addressing the eye, while its use is more convenient than that of the cubes. The method is by induction. The first lesson teaches to combine three units, variously, by addition. The second, to reckon these forward or backward. The third, to name them from the middle. Then, ideas of comparison, as of greater or less numbers, up to three units. Of differences, of how many times unity must be repeated to make two or three, or elementary ideas of substraction, of multiplication, and of division. The same course of lessons is repeated, increasing the number of cubes (units) up to ten. Next follow ideas of even and uneven numbers, and of the result of their combination, reaching as high as fifteen. Counting by units, by twos, by threes, and following the same steps as in the earlier lessons, counting by twos and threes, by ones and threes, &c., and always repeating the same train. A similar course is followed in reckoning up to twenty, adding counting by fours, by threes and fours, by twos and fours, by ones and fours, and a similar series by fives. This course is kept up as long as necessary, and from the insight it gives, from the very beginning, into the theory of arithmetic, a judicious teacher will be amply repaid for the somewhat tedious repetition of the earlier steps, by the facility of the latter progress. The various exercises in arithmetic are fully detailed in the programme of the Hague school, already given. The elements of form are also taught according to Pestalozzi.

The results of the moral and religious instruction, communicated in and out of school, are fully shown in the character of the people of Holland; and these must be deemed satisfactory. Sectarian instruction is carefully kept out of the schools, while the historical parts of the Bible and its moral lessons are fully dwelt upon. There are various collections of Bible stories for this purpose, which are commented on by the teacher, and all the incidental instruction, so important in a school, has the same tendency. Doctrinal instruction is given, according to an arrangement made with the churches of the various denominations when the school law was promulgated; this instruction is imparted out of the school, on the half-holidays and Sundays. Sometimes, when, as at the Hague, the pupils nearly all belong to one communion, a catechist attends at the school; but even then, only those children whose parents wish it are present at the exercises.

Music is taught by note, and most of the schools have a blackboard, with the ledger lines painted in white or red upon it, to assist the teacher. The songs are of very various characters, as moral, religious, patriotic, grave, gay, and loyal; and very considerable attainment is made in vocal music.

I return now to the school of the Hague, to give an account of the manner in which the various exercises are accomplished, within the six or eight years devoted to elementary instruction. As the law requires but three classes in each school, these are sub-divided. Each division is, in fact, a separate class, with a distinct course of study, and an industrious pupil can pass through one division each year. The number of hours marked, are those devoted per week to the several subjects.

FIRST, OR LOWEST CLASS.

FIRST DIVISION.

	Hours.
Exercises of thought and reason,	2
Prinsen's Tables,	6
Vowels and consonants from the letter-box,	1
Composition of words on the reading-board,	3
General exercises with the letter-box,	1
Spelling from memory,	1
Explanation of words and sentences,	2
Simultaneous reading from books,	4

	Hours.
Individual reading,	1
Reading different printed characters,	1
Mental arithmetic,	1
Exercises in arithmetic,	2
Learning Roman and Arabic numerals,	1
Sitting quiet,	1
Exercises of thought and reason, continued,	2

SECOND DIVISION.

Vowels and consonants from the letter-box, continued,	1
Spelling from memory, continued,	3
Explanation of words and sentences, continued,	3
Simultaneous reading from books, continued,	7
Composition of sentences on the reading-board,	1
Reading written characters,	2
Writing on the blackboard,	1
Arithmetic by induction, continued,	1
Mental arithmetic, continued,	1
Writing and reading numbers,	2
Reading Roman numerals,	1
Elements of form,	1
Sitting quiet,	1

THIRD DIVISION.

Exercises of thought and reason, continued,	2
Spelling from memory, continued,	1
Explanation of words and sentences, continued,	1
Simultaneous reading from books, continued,	7
Composition of sentences on the reading-board, continued,	1
Writing on the blackboard, continued,	1
Reading written characters, continued,	1
Grammar, the conjugations,	1
Writing on slates	1
Writing out verses to learn by rote,	1
Linear drawing,	1
Arithmetic by induction, continued,	1
Mental arithmetic, continued,	1
Practical arithmetic,	1
Writing and reading numbers, continued,	2
Reading Roman numerals, continued,	1
Elements of form, continued,	1
Table of coins,	1
Catechism,	1

SECOND CLASS.

FIRST DIVISION.

Exercises of thought and reason, continued,	2
Analysis of sentences,	1
Explanation of words and sentences, continued,	1
Composition of sentences continued,	1
Simultaneous reading, continued,	5
Correct reading,	1
Parsing.	1
Writing on slates,	2
Writing small hand on paper,	3
Mental arithmetic, continued,	1
Practical arithmetic, continued,	2
Table of coins, continued,	1
Elements of form, continued,	1
Linear drawing, continued,	1
Moral and religious instruction, continued,	1
Singing,	1

SECOND DIVISION.

	Hours.		Hours.
Exercises of thought and reason continued	1	Geography of Holland,	1
Simultaneous reading from books, continued.	5	Arithmetic by induction, continued,	1
Correct reading, continued,	1	Mental arithmetic, continued,	1
Composition of sentences, continued,	1	Practical arithmetic, continued,	3
Writing on the slate, continued,	1	Rules of arithmetic,	1
Writing on paper, continued,	4	Decimal fractions,	1
Writing capital letters,	1	Elements of form, continued,	1
Linear drawing, continued,	1	Moral and religious instruction, continued,	1
History of Holland,	1	Vocal music, continued,	1

THIRD CLASS.

Exercises of thought and reason, continued,	1	Writing on blackboard,	1
Simultaneous reading, continued,	1	Mental arithmetic, continued,	1
Correct reading of prose and poetry,	1	Practical do. do.	4
Writing from dictation, for orthography,	2	Rules of do. do.	3
Grammar, continued,	1	System of weights and measures,	1
History of Holland, continued,	1	Theory of numbers,	1
Chronology of Holland,	1	Moral and religious instruction, continued,	1
Geography of Holland,	2	Catechism, continued,	1
Writing of small hand from copy slips,	2	Vocal music, continued,	1
Writing capital letters and figures,	1		

The half-yearly examination of the pupils, at which I was present, enabled me to hear their progress in arithmetic with the cubes, in reading and spelling, in forming words and sentences, in numerating written numbers, making Roman numerals, in higher reading, in the elements of form, in higher arithmetic, in mental arithmetic, in the geography of Holland, and in vocal music. Their attainments in these branches were, in general, quite respectable, and in some of them very satisfactory indeed.

The system of weights and measures is taught in the schools of Holland, not only by learning tables, but by reference to the standards themselves, a complete set of copies of which is expected to be preserved in every school. The advantages of this method are very great.

The branches taught in the schools for the poor, are carried further in the burgher schools. Thus the course of grammar is extended, and general history and geography are added. The essentials are, however, the same, and there is no new train of study.

The instruction in the so called, French schools, may be illustrated by that in the one established by the school committee of Utrecht. This school consists of three divisions: two for boys and one for girls. Of those for boys, the first is a Dutch elementary school, which takes its pupils at about five years of age, and carries them through a course very similar to that already described.* At from ten to eleven, they pass to the French school. Here they make further attainments in the Dutch language, study general geography and history in detail, carry their arithmetic further, and begin algebra, continue the course of geometry, make greater progress in the theory and practice of music, and above all, study the French language grammatically, and by using it as the language of recitation, and learning much of the other branches through its medium, acquire a great facility in speaking it. In some of these schools, physics and natural history are taught, and Latin is begun by those who intend to enter the grammar school.

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* I was much pleased to see the method of teaching geography, by delineating maps on the blackboard in use in this school. The master himself must be practiced in the art, in order that the pupils may learn by imitation.

PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOL*

AT HAARLEM, IN HOLLAND.

THIS school is peculiar in regard to instruction, practice in teaching, and discipline. It is intended to prepare for at least the second grade among primary teachers, which, it will be remembered, qualifies for the mastership of any primary school, the first class being an honorary grade. The age of admission, the time of continuance, and the courses of instruction, are regulated accordingly.

The director† is the head of the institution, and controls absolutely all its arrangements. His principle, that a teacher in such a place should be left to study the character and dispositions of his pupils, and to adapt his instruction and discipline to them, dispenses with rules and regulations, or constitutes the director the rule.‡ To carry out this principle, requires that the school should not be numerous, and it is accordingly limited to forty pupils. There is an assistant to the director, who shares in the general instruction with him, and upon whom the religious teaching of the pupils specially devolves. The school is visited periodically by the inspector-general, who examines the pupils personally, and notes their general and individual proficiency.

To be admitted, a youth must be over fifteen years of age, and have passed an examination upon the studies of the elementary school, satisfactory to a district-inspector, who recommends him for admission. He is received on probation, and, at the end of three months, if his conduct and proficiency are satisfactory to the director, is recommended to the minister of public instruction, who confirms his appointment.

The course of theory and practice lasts four years in general, though, if a pupil have the third lower grade of public instruction in view, which is attainable at eighteen years of age, he is not required to remain connected with the institution beyond that age, and indeed may leave it, on his own responsibility, before the close of the regular course. The second grade is only attainable at the age of twenty-two, and hence it is not usual for pupils to enter this school as early as the law permits. The theoretical instruction is composed of a review and extension of the elementary branches, as the Dutch language, geography, arithmetic, elementary geometry, the history of the country, natural history, religion, writing, and vocal music, and also of general geography and history, natural philosophy, and the science and art of teaching. This is communicated in the evenings, the pupils meeting at the school for the purpose. During the day they are occupied in receiving practical instruction, by teaching under the inspection of the director in the elementary school already spoken of, attached to the normal school, and occupying its rooms, or in teaching in some other of the elementary schools of the town of Haarlem. They pass through different establishments in turn, so as to see a variety in the character of instruction. The director, as inspector of primary schools in this district, visits frequently those where his pupils are employed, and observes their teaching, and also receives a report from the masters. The observations and reports are turned to account in subsequent meetings with his class.

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* From Bache's Education in Europe.

† Mr. Prinsen, one of a class of teachers who adorn this profession in Holland.

‡ When M. Cousin, in his visit to Haarlem, invited Mr. Prinsen to communicate to him the regulations of his school, and then to show him how they were carried out, first the rule, then the results, the director replied, "I am the rule."

The pupils do not board together in the normal school, but are distributed through the town, in certain families selected by the director. They form a part of these families during their residence with them, being responsible to the head for the time of their absence from the house, their hours, and conduct. They take their meals with the families, and are furnished with a study and sleeping-room, fire, lights, &c. The director pays the moderate sum required for this accommodation from the annual stipend allowed by government.* The efficiency of such a system depends, of course, upon the habits of family life of the country, and upon the locality where the school is established. In Holland and Haarlem the plan succeeds well, and has the advantage that the pupils are constantly, in a degree, their own masters, and must control themselves, and that they are never placed in an artificial state of society or kind of life, which is the case when they are collected in one establishment. The director makes frequent visits to these families, and is informed of the home character of his pupils. The discipline of a normal school is, of course, one of the easiest tasks connected with it, for improprieties or levities of conduct are inconsistent with the future calling of the youth. Admonition by the assistant and by the director are the only coercive means resorted to, previous to dismission. The director has authority to dismiss a student without consulting the minister, merely reporting the fact and case to him. Though this power may be important in increasing his influence, yet it has been necessary to exercise it but three times in twenty years. There are two vacations of from four to six weeks each, during which the pupils, in general, return to their friends. The school has a lending-library of books relating to teaching, and of miscellaneous works. This useful institution supplies for the primary schools, every year, from eight to twelve well-prepared masters, who propagate throughout the country the excellent methods and principles of teaching here inculcated.

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* This annual stipend is ninety dollars. Supposing that a student has an entire bursary, he will require some additional funds to support him while at the school; for his board, lodging, &c., cost two dollars per week, which, for the forty-two weeks of term-time, amounts to eighty-four dollars, leaving him but six dollars for incidental expenses.

DENMARK.

Public instruction has long received much attention in Denmark. It is necessary to be able to read respectably, and to have received some religious instruction, in order to be admitted to the communion of the Lutheran church; and such admission is substantially indispensable to apprenticeship, or other industrial employment, and to marriage, so that the people are better instructed than those of most countries in Europe.

At the time of the reformation, there existed in every town, and in connection with the religious houses, a large number of Latin schools, containing in some cases from 700 to 900 pupils, in which also were classes for elementary instruction. Various royal ordinances were promulgated, from 1539 down to the present day, extending or modifying the provisions for public education which existed prior to that date. The present school system, however, dates from 1814, at which time an ordinance was published, reorganizing the system of primary and secondary instruction.

1. Each parish must furnish and maintain sufficient schools and teachers for the primary instruction of all children within it, in reading, writing, arithmetic, and the Lutheran catechism, to which are often added grammar, history, and geography. The emoluments of the teachers, although small, support them comfortably, as living is cheap. They commonly receive from $200 to $250, a small part of it in money, and the rest in provisions, besides the occupancy of a house and several acres of land. Similar but larger schools exist in the cities. There are 4,700 primary or parochial schools with about 300,000 pupils.

2. The secondary schools are the high or grammar schools, about 30 in number, in the cities and large towns. Of these the most eminent is the academy at Sorö, established in 1536, from the funds of a Cistercian monastery, founded about 1150 by Archbishop Absalon. In these schools are taught Latin and Greek, French and German, mathematics, natural sciences, geography, history, and all the branches of a thorough high school education. There are also about 30 real schools of a similar grade, but giving instruction more adapted to commercial pursuits. Here may also be classed the higher burgher schools of the cities. Female schools of this grade exist, but they are mostly private; indeed, there are many private schools, both for boys and girls.

3. Above these schools are the two universities, for Danish students, at Copenhagen, founded in 1479, and for German students, at Kiel, founded in 1665. The university of Copenhagen contained, in 1841, about 1,260 students, and 40 professors and instructors. Its revenue is about $72,000 a year, and its library contains about 110,000 volumes. There is annexed to it a polytechnic institute, or school of arts, in which instruction is given in the application of science to industrial occupations. The university of Kiel contained at the same time about 390 students, and about fifty professors and teachers. It receives a revenue from the State of about $30,000 a year, and has a library of 70,000 volumes. Besides the above-mentioned university revenues, the students at both pay fees to the professors, whose lectures they attend at Copenhagen, after the rate of from two to four dollars for a course of lectures, (one a week for six months,) and at Kiel, about a dollar for the same.

4. There are eight normal schools, in which the course of instruction occupies three years, and includes Danish, mathematics, natural sciences, writing, pedagogy, history, geography, gymnastics, and drawing.

The Lancasterian system of instruction, which was very generally tried and rejected in Germany, succeeded much better in Denmark. It was permissively introduced in 1822, and actively advocated by M. D'Abrahanson, aid-de-camp to the king, and by others, and spread with so much rapidity that in three years it was used in 1,707 schools, and in 1830 in 2,673, of all grades. It has, however, been considerably modified, and as now used is called the reciprocal or Danish system, to distinguish it from the original mutual, or Lancasterian.

The royal chancery is the highest board of educational inspection. The baliff and provosts of each town inspects its schools, and the pastor and "school patroons" those of each parish. The school patroons are all having a revenue, estimated, to equal or exceed 32 tuns, or 1,520 bushels of corn.

The institutions of special instruction, besides those already mentioned, are a medical school, a pharmaceutical school, a foresters' school, a military high school, a land-cadets' academy, a sea-cadets' academy, (lower schools for sea and land military service,) an academy of fine arts, a school for the blind, and one for deaf mutes.

Considerable funds are used in paying pensions to teachers' widows, and to retired or invalid teachers.

Iceland, an appendage of the Danish crown, with a population of 70,500, is remarkable for the universality with which elementary instruction is diffused, not by schools, but by the family. The only school on the island is a gymnasium for the higher studies at Bessestad, which was endowed in 1530.

SWEDEN.

The system of Public Instruction in Sweden, consists of—I. Two Universities; II. Secondary Schools, Grammar Schools, and Practical Schools; III. Primary Schools, or schools for the people.

I. There are two universities, Upsula, with an average attendance of 1000 students, and Lund, with about 450 students. At the head of each university is the Chancellor, who is always a person of rank, elected by the professors and confirmed by the king. The present Crown Prince holds this office in both institutions. The professors embrace the four faculties—theology, law, medicine, and philosophy. To each faculty belong a number of stipendiary professors and assistant lecturers. Attendance on the lectures is not compulsory on the students, nor are they required to remain for any specified time. Every candidate for any degree conferred by the university, must pass a satisfactory examination.

II. Secondary instruction is given in "Schools of Learning" (Lardams Skola) and Gymnasia. The former, is a lower grade of Gymnasium. Both are classical schools; and in the two, the pupils are instructed in religion, geography, history, writing, mathematics, Latin and Greek, the German and French languages, and the elements of natural history. Besides these, there is a class of schools, called *Apologist Schools*, in which the course of instruction is as thorough as in the Gymnasium, except in the classics. According to an official report in 1843, there were twelve Gymnasia, forty-one Schools of Learning, forty Apologist Schools, and two Cathedral Schools, connected with the universities. All these institutions are almost entirely supported by the State; the government appropriating nearly $100,000 a year for salaries of teachers. In these schools the children of the gentry, governmental officials, and professional families, are educated, but are not closed to any child qualified to enter.

III. The government as early as 1684, in order to make the lowest form of instruction universal, ordered that before any person could be admitted to the rite of confirmation, (which was necessary to marriage,) the curate should be satisfied of his or her ability to read; and up to 1822, the peasantry of Sweden was thought to be the most intelligent in Europe. But in consequence of inquiries instituted about that time by a voluntary association, it was found that home and parochial school education had been for a quarter of a century neglected, and in 1825 a a general system was introduced; but up to 1842, the establishment of schools had gone forward so slowly, that it became necessary to pass a law making it compulsory for every district to erect at least one school with an approved teacher.

Every parish is divided into districts, and whenever a districts does not contain population or wealth enough to maintain a permanent teacher, it is visited by an itinerating teacher, who is permanently employed by the school board of the parish, to teach at different periods of the year in different localities of the parish.

The school board consists of a chairman and committee elected by the district, whose duty it is to provide a school-house, and elect and employ teachers. Each teacher is entitled to a minimum salary, consisting of sixteen barrels of corn, lodging, firewood, pasture, food for one cow, and small piece of land to cultivate for a garden. If the district can not furnish this, the government makes a grant in aid.

The course of instruction comprises religion, geography, Swedish and universal history, mathematics, geometry, natural history, music, and gymnastics. All children between the ages of nine and fifteen must attend school, unless it can be shown that they receive instruction at home. The Lancasterian, or mutual method of instruction, is very widely adopted.

The inspection of all the schools, belongs to the bishop and the chapter of the Cathedral. The school board of each district, makes an annual report of the state of the schools to the cathedral chapter of the diocese, by which body a report is forwarded every three years to the government. According to the last triennial report, (July, 1850,) the population of Sweden was 3,358,867; and of this number, the following children of the legal school age (over nine and under fifteen years) were receiving instruction as follows:—

1. In Primary Schools—stationary,	boys,	81,422
" " "	girls,	62,104
2. In Primary Schools—ambulatory,	boys,	67,120
" " " "	girls,	59,058
3. Secondary Schools,	boys,	6,223
4. Private Institutions,	boys,	7,087
" "	girls,	10,377
5. Educated at home,	boys,	55,827
" " "	girls,	73,169
6. In Sunday Schools,	boys,	13,177
" " "	girls,	12,541

The number of masters employed by the school board in stationary schools, was 2,107; and in ambulatory schools 1,351, of whom 218 were clergymen, and 690 church organists.

By the act of 1842, a Normal School or Seminary for the training of teachers was instituted. The pupils receive a fixed salary for their support from the government, in consideration of which, they obligate themselves to teach for at least three years in the primary schools.

NORWAY.

Education is very generally diffused in Norway. The existing school system much resembles that of Denmark, and was established at the same time with it, in 1814. The parishes are obliged to maintain good school-houses, and to pay the salaries of the teachers. These salaries usually afford a comfortable support, and are paid partly in money, and partly in produce; the use of a house being often added. Ability to read the Bible, and a certain amount of religious knowledge, are prerequisites to confirmation. The law, moreover, as in Prussia, enforces attendance at school for a certain period. And almost all Norwegians possess a competent knowledge of reading, writing, arithmetic, Bible history, and the catechism, to which some acquaintance with geography, grammar, and history, is often added.

The educational institutions of Norway may be described as follows:

1. A university at Christiana, founded in 1811. This contains, generally, about 28 professors and 700 students. It has a library of 50,000 volumes, a botanic garden, and a museum.

2. Colleges preparatory to the university. These exist in Christiana, and in most of the large towns, and usually possess libraries and museums. There are also in Christiana schools of drawing and architecture, and a school of commerce and navigation.

3. Twenty-one citizens' schools, in the large towns, with 1,079 pupils. In these are taught, besides the usual studies before named, mathematics, English, French, German, and Latin.

4. Fifty-five schools for laborers, with 6,602 pupils.

5. One hundred and eighty-three permanent country schools, with 13,693 pupils.

6. One thousand six hundred and ten itinerating schools, with 133,362 pupils. These are taught in the thinly peopled districts, a month or two a year each, where the people are too poor to support permanent schools.

7. An asylum for deaf mutes, at Drontheim.

8. Sunday schools exist in all the principal towns.

9. Libraries are maintained in most of the parishes by the Society of Public Good.

In 1837, one seventh of the population were receiving instruction in the public schools.

RUSSIA.

The first school in Russia was established in 1017, at Kief, by Valdemir the Great, for the instruction of the clergy, and placed under the care of the bishop. A few years later, (1031,) Jaraslaff, the son of Valdemir, established a school at Novgorod for the education of 300 sons of the clergy and nobility. The following directions are handed down as having been given by the bishops of Kief, to the masters of his schools—and, whether so given or not, are worthy of the serious attention of every teacher.

> Instruct the children in truth and virtue, in book science, good manners, and charity; in the fear of the Lord, which is the beginning of wisdom, and in purity and humility. Instruct them not in anger and severity, but with joy and affectionate treatment—with sweet precepts and gentle consolation that they may neither become weary nor weak. Teach them diligently and frequently; and give them tasks according to their powers, so that they may not faint and droop; but above all things, instruct them assiduously out of the law of the Lord, for the advantage of both soul and body; and restrain them from foolish and improper language.

Previous to 1700, education in Russia was confined to the clergy and a few noble families, and the only seminaries for this purpose existed in connection with religious houses, and were taught and managed by the clergy. Peter the Great, was the first to establish schools to educate youth for the civil and military services of the empire, and by degrees a large number of scientific and literary institutions, and a well-organized system of public instruction, have been established—limited however in their benefits to the government; to the higher interests of science and literature, and mainly to the children of nobles and official functionaries, and the higher class of merchants—and all based on the cardinal ideas of Russian policy, that all the moral and intellectual forces of society must be merged in the will of the Czar.

Peter I. founded the first naval school, and school for engineers at St. Petersburg, and schools in which navigation was taught, at Pskow, Novgorod, Moscow, Jaraslaw, and Wologda. The number of the cloister schools were increased, and the nobles were commanded to send their children to school—and the privileges of these schools were extended to other classes of people. In 1724, before his death, he projected the plan of the imperial academy of sciences, which was opened by his successor in the following year. Peter also invited a large number of learned men to teach in his schools at St. Petersburg, and particularly to instruct Russian youth to take charge of schools in other parts of the kingdom—thus introducing the plan of normal instruction. By his purchases and encouragements to professors, he founded the museum of natural history, the museum of fine arts, and the school of mines.

The Empress Anna, founded the first corps of cadets, a military academy for young nobles, at St. Petersburg, and forbade all promotion among soldiers, and subordinate officers, who could not read. She also founded schools at Astrachan for the Calmucks, and at Kasan for the Tartars, and directed one of the officers of the government to report to her annually on the condition of public instruction.

The Empress Elizabeth, imposed fines on all nobles and public functionaries, who did not educate their children at home, or in the church, or public seminaries. She founded the university of Moscow, in 1755, and the academy of arts in 1757.

Paul III. increased the number of military schools, and educated at the expense of the government in these schools, the sons of the poorer nobles. He also founded schools for the orphan children of military men, and founded an institute in St. Petersburg for the sons of private soldiers, and subordinate officers, in the garrisons of the city.

Catharine II., applied her vigorous mind to extending the educational policy of the government. During her reign, and at her suggestion, the imperial free economical society was founded in 1765, by Count Woronzow, and other noblemen, for promoting scientific and useful knowledge. Under the patronage of successive emperors, it has grown up into one of the most important educational institutions of Russia. It has established an agricultural school with a model farm; a collection of drawings and models of machines, tools and implements used in every department of labor; instituted and aided experiments to perfect industrial methods; held public exhibitions of domestic industry; sent out individuals to study the workshops, factories, and farms of other countries; published a large number of useful didactic tracts on agriculture, and other occupations, and diffused a large amount of information on public health, &c. Catharine was instrumental in founding the academy of St. Petersburg, for the cultivation of the Russian language and literature. She projected in 1783 a system of public schools of two grades, styled *upper* and *lower*—the former for the capital of every district, and the latter for every family in every large city. In the lower schools were to be taught reading, writing, the catechism, and sacred history; in the upper, in addition, drawing, mathematics, the history and geography of Russia, natural history and philosophy, and the Latin and German languages. She commenced her system in St. Petersburg, and invited Jankevitch de Murievo, an eminent teacher and school officer in Austria, to superintend the work. So successful was he, that in 1790 the system had been introduced in one hundred and seventy towns.

The inspection over them was confided to the governors of provinces, and a regular appropriation of the provincial funds was made towards their support. This empress founded the normal gymnasium, which is now the imperial normal school of St. Petersburg, two marine schools, a school of commerce, and a school of mines, and several female seminaries, one of which still bears her name at the capital.

Alexander, on assuming the government, declared that he regarded public instruction as the first condition of national prosperity. To him belongs the credit of the more thorough organization of the public schools, by the appointment of a minister of public instruction in 1802. Under the regulations of this officer, and by the direction of the Czar, the schools were divided into four grades, viz.: 1. Universities. 2. Government schools, or gymnasia. 3. District schools. 4. Parish schools. The whole empire was divided into seven circles or districts, to each of which was assigned a university. The officers of the university circle have the supervision of the schools of the three lower grades, viz., a gymnasium or classical high school, in the capital of each province or government; the district school, in the capital of each subdivision of a province; and the schools in each parish in every city and village.

The results of this system of public schools in bringing children of different classes and creeds together, and in stimulating inquiries into the organization of society, and the operations of government was thought to bode no good to the stability of things as they were, and during the reign of the present emperor, as well as during the later period of his predecessors, while much attention and large appropriations were bestowed on education—the aim has been to educate children of each class in society by themselves, to repress freedom of discussion in the universities, and to multiply special schools to train up officers to fill different departments of the public service with an intense national spirit, as will be seen in the following summary of educational institutions drawn from various recent authorities.

I. *Public schools or institutions, under the ministry of public instruction.*—There are 6 universities, 1 head normal school at St. Petersburg, 3 lycea, with a course of instruction almost as extended as that of a university, 77 gymnasia, 433 district schools, 1,068 town, and 592 pensions, or boarding-schools established with the permission of the minister, besides schools of the above grades in Poland. All of these schools include about 200,000 pupils.

II. *Military schools.*—These institutions receive the special attention of the emperor, and a large portion of the appropriations for educational purposes. There are three classes: 1. School of cadets or military colleges, nominally under the direct management of the emperor, which he delegates to the Grand Duke, heir apparent. The emperor visits them frequently in person, and looks into all the details of discipline and instruction. There are about 9,000 military cadets. 2. Schools under the direction of the navy board—studying to become officers, pilots, and master-workmen in the navy yards. There are about 4,000 pupils of this class. 3. Schools for children of soldiers in service, or who died in war—under the minister of war. These schools are scattered throughout the empire, and number 170,000 children.

III. *Ecclesiastical schools.*—Several of this class of schools are amongst the oldest of the empire, dating back to the introduction of Christianity, and were mainly instrumental in maintaining any degree of intelligence in the Russian clergy. Peter I. increased their number, and improved their condition by degrees; and they still constitute an important educational agency in the State, not only as theological schools for educating the clergy, but for elementary instruction generally. In respect to management, they are divided into two classes: those which belong to the Greek church, under the holy synod and a committee of the body, and those which belong to other forms of worship, which are under the direction of the minister of the interior, and the consistory of each denomination. The ecclesiastical schools are of two grades. The higher seminaries are strictly theological schools, of which there are 21 belonging to the Greek church, 13 to the Catholic, 14 to the Armenian, 8 to the Lutheran, 11 to the Mohammedan, and 2 to the Jews, with over 4,000 students. Besides these, there are elementary schools for the sons of the clergy, viz.: 407 belonging to the Greek church, 275 to other denominations with over 70,000 pupils in attendance.

IV. *Schools under the minister of finance.*—These comprise, 1. school of mines, which are of three grades, inferior, middle, and superior seminaries—the latter only being strictly schools for teaching the art. These schools receive mainly the children of miners—thus perpetuating the occupation from father to son. There are 5,000 children in the government schools of mines, and about half the number in schools supported by proprietors of private mines. 2. Schools of commerce, a practical institute of technology, a forest institute, and a school of land surveying and design, numbering in all about 3,000 pupils. The schools under the minister of finance, employ 461 teachers, and instruct about 8,000 pupils.

V. *Schools under the minister of the interior.*—These are schools of medicine, surgery, and pharmacy, all independent of the university faculties; rural schools for the cultivation of the vine, and for agriculture in general; schools for some of the subaltern officers in the civil service, and schools for orphans and poor children. These schools include over 15,000 pupils.

VI. *Schools under the minister of domains of the crown.*—These include several agricultural colleges, and 2,696 village schools for children of the peasants, giving instruction to 14,064 males and 4,843 females.

VII. *Schools under the general direction of roads and bridges.*—These include two schools of civil engineering, and one for conductors and managers of roads—instructing 665 pupils.

VIII. *Schools under the minister of justice.*—These include three law schools independent of the faculties of law in the universities, with 600 students.

IX. *Schools under the minister of the emperor's household.*—These include the academies of the fine arts at Moscow and St. Petersburg, a school of architecture, a school of music—containing in all over 1,000 students.

X. *Schools under the minister of foreign affairs.*—These include schools of modern languages, and one especially to train interpreters in the Asiatic tongues. These schools instruct over 800 students.

XI. *Schools under the reigning empress.*—These include the foundling hospitals, the boarding-schools for young ladies in St. Petersburg, Moscow, Odessa, and schools for daughters of indigent and invalid officers, besides several houses of industry, schools for the deaf and dumb, and blind. In all of these schools there are over 90,000 children.

XII. *Schools aided by the government, but not including in the above.* Among these are schools in the German colonies, in Tartary, &c., numbering in all over 50,000 pupils.

The above classes of schools, mainly supported by the government, and, to a large extent, devoted to educating young men for different departments of the public service, are instructing about 600,000 of the population. This number is exclusive of the number of children who are receiving a home education, which is estimated by M. de Krusenstem at 597,000, making an aggregate of about 1,200,000 of the youthful population under instruction, a much larger number than is generally conceded.

Independently of the institutions occupied directly in the education of youth, Russia has her academies of science, learned societies, public libraries, museums, and galleries of the fine arts. Her public libraries include nearly 1,000,000 volumes.

The following notice of the system of public instruction in Russia, appeared in the *Annuaire des deux mondes*, for 1851–52.

Two principles seem to preside over the system of instruction in Russia, the universities are not open to all, nor have they the power of teaching in all branches of learning. It is mainly since 1848, that the young generation has been restricted by the measures taken to keep it isolated from contact with the opinions that have extended over the other countries of Europe. The Russian government makes no secret of this, and the report presented to the Emperor in 1851 upon the condition of public instruction in 1850, does not conceal the intention of the supreme power. This official report assumes as basis the emperor's own idea, that religious teaching constitutes the only solid foundation of all useful instruction. Besides the plans adopted by the Holy Synod and by the Minister of the Interior, to carry out this principle, the ministry of public instruction aids it in various ways. The chief inspector of religious teaching is aided by an adjunct charged with the duty of visiting monthly, and examining the scholars in the schools and "gymnases" of St. Petersburg, in their religious studies, and every month he must make to the minister a report upon the progress and tendencies of this teaching. Ecclesiastical inspectors have been established at Kiew, Kharkof, and Kasan, as they were at Odessa in 1848. Upon these functionaries devolves the task of supervising the teachers and their mode of instruction. In conformity with the will of supreme power, the Holy Synod has directed all ecclesiastical schools to frame for religious study a plan similar to that of the university, the superior normal schools and the lyceums of Richelieu, Demidoff, and Prince Bezboradko. This plan includes dogmatic and moral theology, and church history. In that of the universities there is also included a course of ecclesiastical jurisprudence. Religious studies in secondary schools and *gymnases* are also regulated by a special plan. To complete this system, the emperor has ordered the suppression of instruction in philosophical learning by lay professors in the universities of St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kharkof, Kasan and Kiew, in the lycea of St. Petersburg, and the Richelieu lyceum at Odessa, and professors of theology have been nominated for these establishments, to fill the chairs of logic and experimental psychology. The plan for instruction in these branches has been arranged by concert between the Holy Synod and the State. In the university of Dorpat, all philosophical teaching is restricted to this course of logic and psychology, which has been confided to a theological professor. The faculties of philosophy, formerly divided into two sections, have now been resolved into special departments, one of history and philology, the other of physics and mathematics. In order to maintain the teachers in the new spirit of this system, there is in each university attached to the department of history and philology, a class of normal instruction obligatory upon all the students of that department, upon all pensioners of the crown who aspire to the position of teachers in gymnases, or in district schools, and upon all paying students who are being prepared for private teachers. It is also in furtherance of these principals that the emperor has, since 1849, limited to 300 the number of paying students, admissible to the universities, no exceptions to this restriction being made except for the course of medical study, and for that of theology in the universities of Dorpat. "To complete these measures," says the official report, "his majesty has deigned to permit that henceforth, among the student candidates for admission, the preference shall be given to those, who being equally with others fitted by preparatory instruction and good conduct, may, by their rank and by existing regulations, have the right to enter the civil service." Here we see the prevailing ideas of instruction and the mode of its restraint, so injurious to philosophical studies, and how it has become a peculiar privilege of the youth who by birth are admissible to employment by the State.

University education is divided into 8 districts or circles; St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kharkof, Kiew, Kasan, Dorpat, Odessa, Wilna, Warsaw.

The university of St. Petersburg, has now three faculties, each subdivided into two sections; the faculty of history and philology, composed of the sections of universal and oriental literature; that of physics and mathematics, of those of mathematical and natural sciences, that of law, divided into the sections, juridicial and commercial. In 1850 this university had 66 professors and employees, with 386 students, of whom 288 were sons of nobles, ecclesiastics or government functionaries. The circle of St. Petersburg, embraces the 8 provinces of St. Petersburg, Novgorod, Pskow, Vologda, Archangel, Olonetz, Mobilew, and Witepsk. It contanied in 1850, 13 gymnases, 64 district schools, (of which 5 for nobles exclusively,) 96 parish schools, of which 17 belonged to parishes of worship other than the Greek; 2 model boarding-schools for young girls, 9 boarding-schools attached to gymnases and 1 to a district school, and 192 private institutions. The whole number of pupils of both sexes was 20,162, of whom 11,474 were children of nobles, ecclesiastics, "notable" burgesses, and merchants.

The circle of Moscow embraces the 9 provinces of Moscow, Vladimir, Kalouga, Kostroma, Riazau, Smoleusk, Tver, Toula, and Taroslav. The university of Moscow, has four faculties, history with philology, physics with mathematics, law and medicine. The circle of Kharkof includes the provinces of Kharkof, Koursk, Voronega, Orel, Tambof, and the territory of the Don Cossacks.

The university of Kharkof has the same number of faculties as that of Moscow, with like subdivisions. So also is organized the university of Kiew. This circle contains the provinces of Kiew, Volhynia, Podolia, Tchernigov and Puttawa.

The university of Kasan, has 4 faculties, and its circle extends over the provinces of Kasan, Nijui, Novgorod, Penza, Astracan, Saratof, Simbirsk, Orembourg, Perm, and Viatka.

The university of Dorpat is one of the most important in the empire, although within its circle a smaller extent of territory is embraced, it includes only the three provinces, Esthonia, Livonia, and Courland; but these are the most intelligent and enlightened in the Russian empire. This university has 5 faculties, theology, law, medicine, history with philology, physics with mathematics.

The provinces of Ekatherinoslaw, Cehersou, Taurida, Bessarabia, the cities of Odessa and Tagauray, with their suburbs and dependencies, constitute the circle of the university of Odessa. The Richelieu lyceum, which presides over this circle, has 3 faculties—of law, commercial and financial course, and physics with mathematics, attached to it is an institute for study of Oriental languages.

The provinces of Wilna, Grodno, Minsk, and Kowno, have a distinct administration under the name of the circle of Wilna, although that city has in fact no university. Wilna was formerly an intellectual center of Poland; its university involved in the final catastrophe of Polish nationality was suppressed in 1832. Such also is the position of the circle of Warsaw, it has no university; it is composed of the provinces of Warsaw, Radom, Plock, Lublin, and Augustovo. The institutions forming it are of two classes, the first includes the institute for nobles at Warsaw; that of agricultural science at Marimont, the gymnase of industrial science at Warsaw, and the school of fine arts attached to it, the institute for teachers of elementary schools at Radzimine, 3 higher professional schools of technology, 6 district industrial schools, 97 Sunday schools for apprentices and the Rabbinical school of Warsaw. In the second class are six gymnases, 18 district classical schools, 1,259 elementary, of which 5 are Jewish. There are also schools maintained by private support; of these there are 54 higher and 113 primary, some for boys or girls separately, and others for both sexes. Public instruction in Poland is continually the object of most minute precaution. In 1850 three classes for higher instruction were commenced in the Warsaw gymnase, but under closest restrictions. Only pupils who, by force of existing regulations, have the right to enter the gymnase, and whose parents live in the city or its environs are admitted to these classes. The governor-general of the kingdom can alone make any exception. Each class is limited to 50 scholars, who pay each an annual fee of 45 silver roubles. From the terms of the official report we understand them to be subjected to the strictest supervision. Two gymnases were, in 1850, suppressed and replaced by district classical schools. The report adds that, "to prevent an unsuitable crowding of pupils at the gymnase of industrial science at Warsaw the administration has found it necessary to, 1st. Found in that capital two separate district industrial schools; 2d. To increase to 20 roubles the fee paid by each pupil of the gymnase without exception. 3d. To impose upon the candidates a stricter examination, and only to admit from among those applying from the provinces those in whose favor there may be important reasons for making exceptions. 4th. To organize branches attached to the two government elementary schools for the purpose of withdrawing from district schools the children of poor parents."

Siberia possesses some educational establishments, yet in their infancy. The 4 governments of Tobolsk, Torusk, Yeunisseisk, and Jukoutsk, have 3 gymnases. The emperor decided, in 1850, that in those of Tobalsk and Torusk, the study of Greek should be replaced by that of Tartar, at the option of pupils. A history of the Old and New Testament, translated into Mongolian by M. Kovalewski, professor of the university of Kasan, has been printed by order of the government for distribution among the still heathen population of some regions of Siberia.

Besides these institutions for Christians of various creeds, Russia has also a certain number of schools for Jews exclusively, they still maintaining in this empire their exclusive existence.

To sum up, the higher institutions comprise the normal schools of St. Petersburg, 6 universities, 3 lyceums, having in all 3,521 students, (233 less than in 1849.) The secondary institutions of the empire number 2,149 with 116,936 pupils, (3,656 more than in 1849,) and in the kingdom of Poland they are 1,561 with 82,942 scholars, (1,279 more than in 1849.) Private schools do not flourish; of these there are in the empire but 2,260 male and female teachers.

The censorship belongs to the university of public instruction. It underwent on the 19th of July, 1850, a new organization, "more suitable to the requirements of the age." By virtue of another decision, sanctioned by the council of the empire, efficient measures have been adopted to prevent the fraudulent introduction of prohibited books from foreign countries. A temporary commission (for two years) has been constituted as experimental, to examine all books designed for instruction of youth. Its report states that the whole number of volumes imported in 1850, is 641,123. In Poland, the censorship authorized the publication of 327 works; the importation being 58,141 volumes, forming 15,986 works.

The military schools are under district administration which the emperor long ago took under his personal direction, delegating it to the Grand Duke, Michael

Paulovich, who retained it until his decease, (September, 1849,) and it is now among the powers of the Grand Duke, heir apparent. The progress and improvement in these has been considerable according to the "Abridged statement of the conduct and condition of the military schools, during the twenty-five years of the reign of his majesty the emperor." The military schools are now divided into three circumscriptions, those of St. Petersburg, Moscow, and the West. The circumscription of St. Petersburg includes 12 institutions, the corps of the emperor's pages, the school of ensigns of the guard, first and second corps of cadets, that of Paul, of Count Araktcheef of Novgorod, of Finland, of Alexander, (childrens,) of Georgia, and the regiment of nobles.* The second circumscription, that of Moscow, contains 11, the first and second corps of Moscow cadets,† that of Alexandria for orphans, those of Bakletine at Orda, of Alexander at Toula, of Michael at Voronega, of Tambof, of Neplinef at Orenburg, and that of Siberia. The report mentions the corps of Kasan as "projected." The corps of cadets of Polotsk, of Peter at Pultawa, of Alexander at Brzieso-Litewski, and of Wladimir at Kiew, compose the circumscription of the West. The number of schools is 27, of which 23 were in complete operation, 3 in process of organization, and one "projected" in 1850, they had 9,504 pupils. Numerous and important improvements had been introduced into military instruction, both in scientific and practical study, and in moral instruction. Their administration has by no means lost sight of its guiding principle, respect for throne and altar. It is this principle that, since 1849 and 1850, governs, more absolutely than ever, the Russian universities. If it is the basis of civic order, it is *a fortiori* the foundation of military discipline which insures the repose of Russian society. Thus all the material and military strength developed in Russian society, are concentrated in the hands of government. Religion governing public instruction, and the Czar in turn governing the clergy, all the moral force of the land obeys a single movement.

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* The higher schools of engineering and artillery "Michael's," are independent of the circumscription.

† To the first corps is attached a branch for children.

GREECE.

THE modern kingdom of Greece, as created by a convention of the governments of France, Great Britain, and Russia, and the king of Bavaria, in 1832, occupies a considerable portion of the ancient Greek states, formerly the primitive seat of European civilization. Amid the noblest ruins of the ancient world, the Greeks had preserved a distinct existence as a people, and something of the purity and richness of their beautiful language. From 1750 to 1800, many Greek youth resorted to the universities of Europe, and returned to establish schools, and diffuse a love of learning among their countrymen. About the beginning of the present century, schools were commenced at Athens, Saloniki, Scio, Rusa, Tschesne, Athos, Cydonia, and other large towns, by which a spirit of liberty was breathed into the youth of the nation, which resulted in the opening of the war of independence, in 1821. Many of these high schools were closed admid the din and devastations of the war—but it was one of the leading features in the policy of the provincial government and of the dictatorship of Capo d' Istrias to establish elementary schools from 1826 to 1831. During the period of the regency, and before the arrival of king Otho, through the efforts of Mr. Maurer, one of the regents, a system of national education was commenced. The following statistics will indicate that the progress already made, is not inconsiderable.

The public educational institutions of Greece and their statistics, for 1851–2, are as follows:

University of Athens, 39 professors, 590 students; classed as follows: of philosophy (sciences and belles-lettres,) 66; theology, 10; law, 109; medicine, 278; pharmacy, 37. Of the 590 students, 281 are from the kingdom of Greece, and 309 from other Greek provinces. The annual expense of this institution is $23,560.

7 Gymnasia (classical high schools,) with 43 professors and 1,077 pupils, of whom 847 are from independent Greece.

79 Secondary schools (called Hellenic, because based upon the study of Greek,) with 133 professors and 3,872 pupils; 4 private institutions and three supported by the communes, with 25 professors and 511 pupils; 1 seminary, with 4 professors and 30 students.

1 Normal school for training teachers for the communal schools, with 7 professors and 60 students.

338 Communal schools for boys, with 366 teachers and 33.864 pupils.

31 Communal schools for girls, with 40 teachers, and 4.380 pupils; 17 private schools for girls, with 25 teachers and 1,479 pupils; the school of the Philecpaideutic Society for the higher instruction of girls, with 13 professors and 464 pupils.

One agricultural school at Tiryns, with 20 scholars.

One military school, with 20 professors and 64 pupils.

There are also, at Athens, a school called the polytechnic school, being the beginning of a school of arts and trades, a library of about 70.000 volumes, a rich cabinet of natural philosophy, a museum of natural history, an anatomical museum, a museum of pathological anatomy, an observatory, a medical society, a society of natural history, an archeological society, a society of the fine arts, and a botanic garden.

According to statistical returns of the kingdom of Greece for 1853, the population is 1,002,112. Of this number, from 700 to 750 are teachers or professors, and about 47,000 pupils, of whom about 6,250 are females. The number of young Greeks studying in the universities of France, Germany, and Italy, is from 350 to 400. Of these, 31 having finished courses of study in Greece, are maintained at the expense of the Greek government; 11 of them are studying medicine, 6 fine arts, 6 literature, 1 law, 1 physical and mathematical science, and 6 theology.

IONIAN ISLANDS.

By the treaty of Paris in 1816, the seven islands—Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, Ceeigo, Ithaca, and Paxo, having in 1840 a population of 200,000, were declared "a single, free, and independent state," under the protectorate of the sovereign of Great Britain, who is represented by an officer, called the Lord High Commissioner. Under the direction of the government, a system of public schools exists, consisting of,

1	University at Corfu, with	78	pupils.
2	Gymnasia with	140	"
6	Superior district schools with	300	"
1	Agricultural School and Model Farm, with, .	80	"
100	District schools with, ...	6,000	"

ITALY.

ITALY comprises,

1. The kingdom of Lombardy and Venice, with	5,068,000	inhabitants.
2. The kingdom of Sadinia, ...	5,292,000	"
3. The Duchy of Parma, ...	479,900	"
4. The Duchy of Modena, ...	490,000	"
5. The Grand Duchy of Tuscany, . . .	1,752,000	"
6. The Republic of San Marino, . . .	8,200	"
7. The State of the Church, ...	2,970,000	"
8. The kingdom of Naples, ...	8,373,000	"

In all of these States there is legal provision made for public education, besides a large number of schools connected with religious houses and charitable institutions. The institutions and endowments for charitable purposes exceed in number and amount those of any other portion of Europe.

I. LOMBARDY AND VENICE.

The system of public instruction in the Austrian dominions in Italy, is substantially the same as in Austria proper. It embraces, 1. elementary schools of two grades; 2. technical schools; 3. gymnasiums; 4. lyceums; and 5. universities. The following account of the system and the schools, is taken from a valuable work on "Italy and the Italians, by Frederic Von Raumer.

> According to the principal law on the subject of schools of an inferior order, there are two gradations of elementary schools, from those with one class to those with three or four. To these are added what are called technical schools. In the lower elementary schools the first principles of religion are taught, together with reading, writing, and arithmetic. The higher elementary schools are intended for those who purpose devoting themselves to the arts or sciences. The technical schools are chiefly intended to prepare youth for commerce and agriculture. The law compels parents to send their children to school between the ages of six and twelve, and a fine of half a lira per month is incurred by those who neglect to do so; but is not enforced in Lombardy. Wherever circumstances allow of its being done, the education of boys is separate from that of girls. A building for school, and the necessary supply of desks, forms, &c., must be provided by the commune. In the cold and mountainous districts only are the school-rooms warmed in winter. The books prescribed for these schools vary in price from forty-two centesimi to a florin. In the higher elementary schools, religion, orthography, Italian grammar, the elements of Latin, mathematics, natural philosophy, geography, and natural history, are taught. In the technical schools instruction is given in modern lan-

guages,—English, German, and French. The clergy are recommended, not merely to give religious instruction, but also to take charge of some other of the lessons. The general superintendence of religious instruction, is committed to the bishops. For opening a private school, an express permission must be obtained from government.

The elementary schools in Lombardy* amounted

In number, in	1835	1836	1837
to	4,422	4,470	4,531
including private schools,	701	995	726

In 1837, there remained only 66 communes without an elementary school for boys, so that, if the education be not general among children, the fault must arise less from the want of public institutions than from the want of good-will. The outlay for elementary schools amounted, in 1837, to 507,000 florins. Of this 21,000 florins were derived from endowments, 423,000 were contributed by the communes, and 63,000 were defrayed by the State. Of every 100 schools, 84 were public. and of every 100 pupils, 59 were boys and 41 girls. About three-fifths of the children of a suitable age attend school; and of those that do so, 91 per cent. attend public, and 9 per cent. private schools. The teachers (including 2,226 clergymen, directors, and school authorities) amount in number to 6,284. The infant schools are attended by 2,026 children, and directed by 93 teachers; their yearly revenues amount to about 16,000 florins. Thus we every where perceive the cause of education advancing, and the several communes manifest their praiseworthy sympathy by constantly increasing votes for the support of schools.

In immediate connection with the higher order of elementary schools are the gymnasiums, of which some are public, some communal, some in immediate dependence on the bishops, and other private institutions. In Lombardy, in 1837, there were 10 imperial gymnasiums, with 96 teachers and 2,865 pupils; 8 communal, with 1,291 pupils. The private gymnasiums were attended by about 1,168 pupils. None but teachers who have been strictly examined are allowed to give lessons in a private gymnasium, the pupils must all be entered on the list of a public school, to which they are bound to pay a yearly contribution of two florins, and at which they must submit to periodical examinations. Private gymnasiums must adopt the course of study prescribed for public institutions, and must not allow their pupils to remain less than the regulated period in each class. Those intended for the church, for the medical profession, or for that of architecture, must be educated at a public school, and those intended for the law are subject to a variety of stringent rules.

All the elementary schools of Lombardy are placed under an inspector, and another officer has the gymnasium under his control. All vacancies for teachers are thrown open to public competition, and it is only after examination that they are confirmed in their appointments by a government order. To every gymnasium are in general attached a rector, a religious teacher, four professors of grammar, and two of humanity, (*d' umanità.*) To limit the number of those who crowd into the learned professions, it has of late years been prescribed that no pupil shall be received at a gymnasium before his tenth or after his fourteenth year. From this regulation, however, constant exceptions are made, as it has been found that a rigid enforcement would have the effect of excluding the cleverest and most industrious children.

Corporal punishments have every where been abolished. On Sundays all the pupils of a gymnasium attend church. Not more than 80 pupils must be included in the same class. Thursday is always a holiday. On each of the other five days there are only four school hours. The holidays, in addition to those on occasion of the church festivals, last from the 9th of September to the 1st of November.

The regular couse of study in each gymnasium last six years, during which the pupil has to pass through four classes of grammar and two of humanity. In the first grammatical class are taught: Italian, the rudiments of Latin, arithmetic, geography, and religion. In the second class, the same course is continued, but Roman antiquity, and the geography and history of the Austrian monarchy, are added. In the third grammatical class, Greek is added; and in the fourth, Latin prosody. In the first humanity class are taught rhetoric, poetry, algebra, geography, history, and religion; in the second, the same subjects continue to employ the pupil. A pupil who does not intend to study medicine, or to go into the church, may obtain a dispensation from Greek.

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* In 1834. there were in the Venetian part of the kingdom 1,438 schools, with 81,372 pupils, and 1,676 male and female teachers.

In every branch of study, the school-books are prescribed by the higher authorities. Latin and Greek are taught exclusively through the medium of anthologies and selections, in which there are difficult extracts intended for the more advanced pupils.

A new law was promulgated in 1838 on the subject of technical or commercial schools. These are intended to prepare the future trader and mechanic, and are therefore to give a practical direction to their studies, always keeping in view the interests of the Austrian monarchy and those of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. The towns in which these schools are established must furnish a suitable building and all the requsite furniture, &c.; the rest of the charge is defrayed by government. Each teacher gives from 4 to 15 lessons weekly, and their salaries vary from 400 to 800 florins. Each school is divided into three classes, into the junior of which a boy may pass from the grammatical first class of a gymnasium. In the first class of a technical school, (the first class always means the lowest,) the pupil is *obliged* to attend weekly 2 lessons of religion, 3 of Italian grammar, 3 of geography, 4 of mathematics, 3 of zoology, 6 of drawing, 4 of writing, in all 25 lessons, of an hour each; in addition to these, there are 2 lessons of German, and 2 of French, the attendance on which is optional. In the second class, botany is substituted for zoology. In the third class are given 2 lessons of religion, 3 of Italian style, 7 of natural philosophy, 3 of mineralogy, in all 15 obligatory lessons. In addition to these, there are 5 lessons of chemistry, 5 of commercial science, 5 of book-keeping, and 3 of commercial correspondence. Of these the pupil may choose whether he will attend the lessons of chemistry and one of the other three subjects, or whether he will attend the last three without chemistry.

There is also a special school for

Veterinary surgery, with 5 teachers, 41 pupils, and an expenditure of 71,643 lire.

Chemistry, with 3 teachers, 15 pupils, and an expenditure of 6,750 lire.

Midwives, with 3 teachers, 71 pupils, and an expenditure of 24,432 lire.

This last institution is in connection with the lying-in and foundling hospitals.

For future theologians, on leaving the elementary schools, distinct institutions are provided in the episcopal seminaries, of which there is one attached to every see. The largest, at Milan, in 1837, contained 403 pupils: the smallest, at Crema, only 10. In these the teachers are appointed by the bishop, but satisfactory proof of their capacity must be given to the temporal authorities.

Mr. Von Raumer adds the following remarks:

In the first place, the elementary instruction is so simple, and the natural progress so evident, that there appears in this respect, to be no very important difference between the German system and that of Lombardy. The only thing to be wished for is, that the number of good teachers may increase in proportion to the number of pupils. To the credit of the clergy be it said that, in addition to the regular hours of religious instruction, they sometimes take charge of one or two other branches, a course perfectly consistent with the duties of their profession.

Secondly—the limited number of school-hours at the gymnasiums is explained by the work which the children are expected to do at home, and the incompatibility of an Italian temperament with long confinement. The work to be done at home is, however, much less considerable than at a public school in Germany; and the vivacity of the Italian temperament might just as reasonably be adduced as a motive for subjecting to a more strict and continuous discipline. Besides, in other parts of Italy, we shall see that the number of school-hours is greater. On other grounds, therefore, must be decided the question, whether an increase in the number of lessons be desirable or not; and also, whether it would not be better to give two half-holidays in the week, as with us, than to sacrifice one whole day out of six, as is done in Lombardy.

Thirdly—I have to observe that under the word grammar is included not only Latin, but every instruction in the native language. Greek is thrown too much into the back-ground; and, however laudable it may be to attend to the geography and history of Austria, it may be much doubted whether it be well judged to assign to them so marked a precedence before every other kind of historical instruction.

Fourthly—the reading nothing but fragmentary collections is defended on the ground that it is expedient to make a pupil acquainted with a variety of authors, and with the different kinds of Latin and Greek. It must be owned that, in our German schools, where a contrary system prevails, many a young scholar becomes acquainted with all the delicacies of one author, without being able even to construe another, with whose particular style he happens not to be acquainted. It would perhaps be better to combine the two systems, and not to make the acquirement of dead languages the main object, where the student is in point of fact intended for some more active pursuit; otherwise, the student, instead of having his character strengthened and his judgment improved by the full impression of ancient greatness, is likely to conceive a disgust of all classical studies, and never to take a Greek or Roman into his hand again, when once he has left school. Who will deny that such is with us the rule, and the contrary the exception?

Fifthly—It may be doubted, perhaps, whether it be advisable to draw the future theologian, like other students, into the full current of temporal affairs; and it is just as doubtful whether it is advisable to detach him completely from the world, and yet require him, when he comes to mingle in it, to understand, to estimate, and to guide it.

Sixthly—Whether our public schools in Germany are not more efficient, and whether they do not prepare the student better for the university than those of Lombardy are questions that do not admit of a doubt. On that very account, however, the lyceum and the course of philosophy have been established.

Seventhly—to a most important point, namely, that in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom all public instruction, whether in the elementary schools, or at a gymnasium, a lyceum, or a university, is *altogether gratuitous*. I am aware of the motives by which the demand of payment is usually justified; nor do I require to be told that what is given away rarely fails to be undervalued; nevertheless, there is something gratifying in the idea of education without any cost to the parents: much anxiety is thus prevented, as well as many little selfish manœuvres.

The following notice is given of the lyceums and universities.

It is generally thought that the gymnasium affords but an insufficient preparation for the study of divinity, law, or medicine, and even for those who, without purposing to devote themselves to either of those professions, intend to compete for appointments to certain public offices. For such students, therefore, a two years' course is opened at the lyceum, or in the philosophical faculty of a university. Before completing this course, a student can not be entered for either of the three other faculties. In Prussia we have no corresponding regulation. The subjects here treated of at the lyceums are with us either attended to at the public school, or may be studied at the university simultaneously with divinity, jurisprudence, or medicine. Here no student can enter a lyceum without a certificate of maturity from the gymnasium; nor can he be entered for either of the three faculties, without a certificate to show that he has passed through the intermediate two years' course, which is never curtailed, though, with respect to some of the lectures, it is left to the option of the students to attend them or not, as they please. The discipline under which they are kept is tolerably strict. They must not go to a theater, ball, or any place of public amusement, without express permission, nor are circulating libraries allowed to lend them novels or the *Conversations-Lexicon*. On Sundays they must go to church, and six times a year they must confess and receive the communion. There are in Lombardy seven imperial lyceums, one civic at Lodi, and eight episcopal, connected with the seminaries. They are attended by 1,600 students. The imperial lyceums cost the government about 137,000 lire annually.

In the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom there are two universities, those of Padua and Pavia, where the course of study is under the control of the directors of the several faculties, who in their turn are responsible to the governor of the province. The directors propose candidates to fill up vacancies, suggest modifications in the course of study, see that the professors arrange their lectures in a suitable manner, that they do not wander away from their subjects, and that they lead a moral life; the directors are also to examine class-books and academical discourses, to be frequently present at the lectures, to take part in the deliberations of the senate, to call the faculties together, and to superintend the election of a dean.

These directors, who are not professors, are said to have all the real power in their hands, the rector being a representative without influence, and the functions of the dean being confined to the care of some matters of a purely scientific character. Every thing belonging to discipline and the maintenance of order is also in the hands of the directors.

An ordinance relating to the university of Padua, dated the 8th of April, 1825, declares that institution to be immediately under the *gubernium*. A general assembly includes not only the directors, deans, and professors, but likewise all doctors who have graduated at Padua, and reside in the city. The rector is elected annually from the different faculties in succession, and not only the professors but also each of the doctors just mentioned has a voice in the election, and is himself eligible to the dignity. The senate selects three candidates from the faculty next in succession, after which a majority of votes determines the election, subject to the confirmation of the government. The rector calls the senate together twice a year, when a report is read of all that has been done by him during the interval. His power, however, in this respect, is greatly cramped, especially by means of the directors. The dean must be a doctor of the faculty to which he belongs, but, in that of law or medicine, must not himself be a professor. In the other faculties, professors are eligible to the dignity of dean. The dean is to keep an historical chronicle of every thing relating to the faculty. All lectures are gratuitous, with the exception that twelve lire are paid by the higher order of nobles on entering their names, nine by the inferior nobles, six by a wealthy citizen, and three by any other student.

With respect to the relation between doctors and professors, the law says: the faculties are considered as academical corporations, distinct (*separati*) from the professors. Although the doctors, therefore, do not belong to the body of instructors, they have a central point of union, to consult together, and place their suggestions before the authorities. They likewise serve the state, as an assembly of well-informed men, whose opinion may be consulted and listened to.

The university of Padua has the four customary faculties. The senate consists of the following persons: the rector, four directors, four deans, and four ancients among the professors. There are six ordinary professors of divinity, eight of law, twelve of medicine, nine of the philosophical sciences, besides a few deputies and assistants, but not, as with us, a set of extraordinary professors and private tutors. The general assembly, including the doctors, consists of twenty-four theologians, fifty-seven jurists, twenty-four physicians, and thirty philosophers.

The university course, for divinity in law, lasts four years; for medicine and surgery, five; and for those who study surgery only, three or four years. Every half-year the students are examined. At the end of two years they obtain the dignity of bachelor, and at the end of three, that of a licentiate. The dignity of doctor is not conferred before the end of the fourth year, nor till after a general examination. The candidate must publicly defend a Latin thesis, but no mention is made of any essay required to be printed.

The university of Pavia has no theological faculty, but in every other respect the same constitution as that of Padua. There are at present thirty-eight professors, three adjuncts, and eleven assessors. Of these eleven professors and two adjuncts belong to the philosophical faculty; four professors and one assessor to the mathematical division of the faculty; eight professors and one adjunct to the legal; and fifteen professors and ten assessors to the medical faculty.

The mathematical division of the philosophical faculty is chiefly intended for the education of land-surveyors and engineers. A student can enter it on completing his course of philosophy.

I will only add a few brief remarks as when treating of schools, by way of instituting some comparison between the German and Italian universities.

In the first place, the lyceum and the course of philosophy owe their institution evidently to a consciousness that a blank existed between the degree of information acquired at a gymnasium and that necessary for prosecuting the study of either of the other three faculties; but here a doubt suggests itself, whether it would not be simpler, more economical, and more beneficial, to assign to the gymnasium a part of the instruction afforded by the lyceum, and the remainder to the university itself. I scarcely think it well-judged to compress all these subjects into the space of two years, and then to confine the student entirely to matters connected with his intended profession, without allowing him the relief of variety. Would it not be better to permit the young men, as is done at our German universities, to attend philosophical and historical lectures, simultaneously with those on theology, medicine or law? It is true that, owing to the greater liberty allowed to our students, they frequently absent themselves from all lectures but those connected with the pursuit on which their future livelihood is to depend. In such cases it is not to be denied that the stricter regulations of Italy may be preferable.

The director of a faculty is an officer wholly unknown with us, and the object of his appointment is evidently the maintenance of a stricter discipline. The enlargement of the faculty by the admission of resident doctors is another arrangement unknown in Germany. It may have the effect of avoiding much partiality and exclusiveness; but it may be questioned whether, on the other hand, it does not tend to weaken the corporation.

Many objections might be made to the number and succession of the lectures, and certainly our better universities in Germany present greater variety and more completeness. The Italians, on the other hand, might argue, that this variety is carried much too far with us, breaking up the course of study into a multitude of fragments, in a manner quite unsuitable to the student's advancement.

A new law was promulgated on the 6th of September, 1838, for the foundation or restoration of two academies of arts and sciences at Venice and Milan, and measures are now in progress to effect the realization of this plan. Each academy is to comprise three classes: real members, honorary members, and correspondents. The first are to receive salaries of 1,200 lire, and the further assistance to be afforded has, for the present, been fixed at 45,000 lire.

II. SARDINIA.

The system of public education embraces, 1. elementary schools in each commune, in which reading, writing, arithmetic, and religious instruction is given. 2. Upper schools in the large towns under the direction of the clergy. 3. Four universities. 4. Special schools of agriculture, of arts and manufactures, of civil engineering, &c. We have no recent statistics respecting these schools. The following notice of higher instruction is taken from the *Annuarie des deux Mondes*, for 1851.

Public instruction under the regime of the old monarchy was not without its fame. The university of Turin, founded so long ago as the 15th century, was fully organized by the middle of the 16th, and gradually became the center for students from all northern Italy. It owes its rapid progress much to the careful solicitude of Victor Amadeus II. In 1720, it had but 800 students; in 1730, two thousand. This university was the focus of intellectual activity in Piedmont, the other institutions for instruction having been but slowly developed.

The system of exclusive privileges, the varying laws, the influence of a hierarchy which mainly governed the elementary schools, all the assemblage of feudal and ecclesiastical institutions embracing government and society, naturally caused great confusion in the organic principles of instruction.

A serious and fundamental reform was attempted in 1847 by the royal decrees of 30th November. The old administration of the university was abolished, and a special ministry of public instruction created. The formation of a high council to assist the minister completed on the 27th December, following this effort of the State to centralize the system by placing it under uniform and stricter supervision. But the present organization only dates from the law of 4th October, 1848, which, inspired by the recent revolution in the principles of political legislation, imprinted upon the institutions for public instruction, of every grade, a new type. The duties of the ministry and of the various councils destined to act under its orders were fixed by this law. All the universities, secondary and elementary schools of the kingdom, are placed under the control of the minister of public instruction. Schools for the deaf and dumb, those of agriculture, of arts and manufactures, of veterinary medicine, forests, civil engineering, of the marine and a few other special schools, are the only exceptions to the rule laid down by this new law. Subsequent legislation has developed these principles. The high council consists of nine regular members appointed for life, and five transient whose term of service is three years. Both classes are chosen by the king among professors either retired or in service, of the various faculties of the kingdom, excepting two of the regular councillors who must be selected among the *savans* or distinguished literary men. Each university, and each faculty, is directed by a council. In each university exists a permanent board, chosen out of its council, charged with direction and supervision of the institutions for secondary instruction. Every college that has a professorship of philosophy has also its council. Elementary instruction is directed by one general council for the whole kingdom whose authority is in the island of Sardinia delegated to the university councils, aided by a board of elementary instruction in each province.

In all the provinces, the State is represented by a sort of rector who is entitled *regio proveditore*. But the movement of this system is derived from the minister and his high council. The resemblance of this to the former high council of the universities in France is obvious. The Piedmontese council prepares and examines projects of laws and regulations relating to public instruction, it arranges a general plan for studies, it examines and approaches the outlines of the courses of study presented to it by the university boards, and also the class-books. The reports of inspectors of schools and scientific institutions, those of the university boards and of the provincial councils presiding over elementary instruction, are also submitted to examination by the high council. Among the most important duties of this body, we may number the obligation of presenting to the minister, once in three years, a general report upon the condition of instruction in the kingdom, and among its most important powers, that of deciding upon questions of discipline, and upon charges preferred against professors of universities and secondary schools, and elementary inspectors, the accused party to be heard.

There are in the kingdom four universities, for Piedmont one at Turin, and one at Genoa; for the island of Sardinia two others, one at Cagliari, the other at Sassari. These universities confer the higher academic degrees. The university schools of Chamberi and Nice, dependencies of the Turin university, have professorships of law and medicine, and students of medicine can pass two years of the required course in them. Each royal college established at an episcopal see, has a faculty of theology for instruction of youth designed for the priesthood. Nearly all the chief provincial towns have a professorship of civil law for those intended to be notaries or advocates.

University instruction is divided into five faculties, theology, law, medicine and surgery, belles-lettres and philosophy, physical and mathematical science. These are subdivided nearly as in the French plan. The most important differences are that of the study of canon law, a branch of the law faculty, and that of the somewhat confused organization of teaching in philosophy. A distinction is made between rational and positive philosophy. The course of positive philosophy which occupies three years includes but one year of philosophy properly so called, moral; the other three are devoted to various branches of exact sciences. Embraces with geometry, general chemistry, mineralogy, zoology and physics, *ancient literature* and *modern Italian*.

Mr. Von Raumer, in his "Italy and the Italians," remarks:

A collection of laws for the regulation of schools was printed in 1834. According to these, the instruction given in the elementary schools is gratuitous. The lessons begin and end with prayer. The gymnasiums (*collegi*) are divided into six classes: three junior, one of grammar, one of humanity, and one of rhetoric. The branches of instruction and class-books are prescribed. Besides the ordinary teachers, every gymnasium has a prefect, who is often changed, and whose duty it is to enforce discipline among teachers and scholars, and a spiritual direc. Under the last named, the following exercises occur daily. Every morning; 1. a quarter of an hour of religious reading; 2. the hymn, *Veni creator*;

3. according to the season, the Ambrosian hymn, and other extracts from the *Ufficio della beata Vergine;* 4. mass; 5. hymn of the litanies of the holy virgin; 6. spiritual instruction; 7. the psalm *Laudate Dominum*, and a prayer for the king. In the afternoon: 1. a quarter of an hour of religious reading; 2. hymn and prayer; 3. three quarters of an hour explanation of the catechism. The school lasts 3½ hours in the forenoon, and 2½ hours in the afternoon. Thursday is a whole holiday. Where the funds of the school are insufficient, a boy in the three junior classes pays 15 francs a year, and in the upper classes, 20 francs, besides 8 or 12 francs on being promoted from one class to another. The salaries of the teachers are paid partly by the government and partly by the towns, and amount to from 750 to 1,200 lire per annum, with some trifling addition in case of long service. The retiring pensions also depend on the period of service, but the highest pension never exceeds the lowest salary. Where the ability is the same, clergymen are always to be preferred. No teacher must cause any thing to be printed either in or out of the kingdom without submitting his manuscript first to the ordinary censorship, and to the censorship of the *riforma*. The *magistrato di riforma* is a kind of ministry of public instruction, and has a *consiglio di riforma* under it in every province. Among its other duties, occurs that of prescribing what books shall be used in instruction, although, in the episcopal seminaries, and some others under the guidance of ecclesiastical orders, such as the Jesuits, the Barnabites, &c., it has little influence.

The scholars of the gymnasiums are not allowed to read any books which have not been either given or furnished by the prefect. They are forbidden to swim, to frequent theaters, balls, coffee or gaming houses; to perform in private plays, and the like; and it is the business of the police to see these prohibitions attended to.

There is in Turin one head university, with four faculties; and there are secondary universities (*università secondarie*) in Chamberi, Asti, Mondovi, Nizza, Novara, Saluzzo, and Vercelli, either for the study of medicine alone, or for medicine and jurisprudence together. The universities have no legal right to make proposals for the appointment to vacant places, and there is consequently no canvassing. This is by some regarded as an advantage, though it is stated on the other hand that hasty and partial nominations are more frequent on this system.

There are three academical degrees, those of bachelor, licentiate, and laureate; and the holidays are on the whole more frequent than with us.

The students are not only under strict scientific superintendence, but also under the close *surveillance* of the police. No student is allowed to choose his dwelling or leave it without permission of the prefect, who often appoints the place where he is to lodge and board.

Whoever wishes to receive students into his house must undertake the responsibility for their observance of the laws which regulate their going to mass and confession, fasting, and even their clothing and their beards. Neglect of these rules is punished by exclusion from the examinations, or from the university itself.

With respect to the great abundance of devotional exercises, I may be permitted to remark that, though the reference to piety and devotion, as to that which should mingle in all sciences and in every action of our lives, be undoubtedly praiseworthy, and for Catholics it is right to prefer Thomas à Kempis to Ovid as a school-book, I can not help doubting if the constant repetition of these prescribed forms be really advisable. Without considering that many must regard them as mere loss of time, it would be scarcely possible to avoid one of two errors—either that of an over-estimation of mere external observances, and a consequent disregard of true inward holiness, or an indifference and disgust easily excited in young minds, when the highest and holiest subjects become matters of daily and mechanical routine.

In the second place, that the school instruction should devolve wholly on Catholic clergymen may have one advantage in an economical point of view, since, being without families, they are better able to maintain themselves on a small income; but it can scarcely escape the objection of bestowing only of one-sided education, or avoid the danger of having many branches of instruction under the superintendence of those who are themselves little instructed; unless ecclesiastics should be obliged to devote themselves to studies foreign to their vocation.

The existence of a lurking wish to extend and strengthen by this means the power and dominion of the church is the more evident, as establishments for education are daily arising, which are entirely withdrawn from temporal influence. I repeat that such a system as this appears to me quite as one-sided and disadvantageous as the opposite one.

In the third place, what is called the philosophical course, is here, still less than in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, such as to afford any compensation for the meagerness of the education afforded at the gymnasium. How, for instance, can a single lesson or lecture a week in Greek grammar make amends for many years' academical study of that difficult language, or afford any preparation for the studies of the university, in themselves meagre enough? Besides, there is merely a choice offered to the quasi-student, whether he will learn Greek or history. Should he prefer history, he must renounce Greek altogether.

Fourthly, much might be said against the subordinate universities above-mentioned. They were established at a time when the unquiet dispositions of the Turin students had turned towards politics, and occasioned much trouble to the government, which endeavored to weaken them by scattering them thus over the country. It may be doubted, nevertheless, whether this lasting resource against a merely temporary evil has proved really effectual.

It is at all events likely that the number of ignorant students has been thereby increased, and the instruction deteriorated from the diminution of the number of learned professors. The German universities sometimes exhibit the dangers of too much liberty, those of this country the evils of too much restraint. The time must come in a young man's life when even paternal authority must cease—much more, then, the discipline of a school.

III. The Grand Duchy of Tuscany.

The means of education provided by the central government, municipal authorities, or charitable endowment are:—1. infant schools, of which, in 1850, there were 22, numbering over 2,000 children. 2. Elementary schools, of which there is at least one supported by the commune, and a number of schools of mutual instruction supported by voluntary associations. In these schools, there is no charge for tuition. 3 Schools for secondary education embracing 4 colleges for nobles, 1[illegible] gymnasiums or classical schools, 16 seminaries or boarding schools for girls, called *conservatori*. The seminary at Florence, has 600 boarders. In all of these schools there are over 5,000 students. 4. Three universities, viz.: at Pisa, (founded in 1138,) with 580 students; at Siena, (founded in 1331,) with 300 students; and at Florence, (called the academy, and founded in 1428,) with 230 students.

Mr. Von Raumer, remarks: "In so highly polished a land as Tuscany, the value of education and instruction has by no means escaped the attention of the government and of individuals; yet much still remains to be done, and schools and universities appear to be very scanty in comparison with the number and revenues of the clergy and especially of the monks. Indeed, the Italians do not acquire knowledge by means of their universities, but in spite of them; and how can governments be surprised if many, both old and young, have either no ideas at all, or false ones, of passing events, of social relations, states, constitutions, and governments, since every genuine avenue to science and experience is cut off from them by the perverse one-sidedness and silly apprehension of their rulers!"

IV. STATES OF THE CHURCH.

The Roman, or Papal States, or States of the Church are divided into 21 provinces, of which those lying west of the Apennines are styled *Legations*, while that of Rome bears the name of Comarca. This territory was at various times,—most of it from 755 to 1273 donated to the Holy See. The general supervision of all the educational institutions is committed to a Commissioner of Studies, while the local management of the elementary schools is assigned to a committee of which the parish priest is one. The means of elementary education are very generally provided either by parish schools, or by schools conducted by various religious orders. Higher education is dispensed by seven universities, several of which are among the oldest in the world.

The institutions for elementary education in the city of Rome are:

1. Orphan asylums. Of these there are a large number richly endowed and well regulated, of which some are for boys and others for girls. The San Michael, is supported by the government, and furnishes instruction not only in the elementary studies but in various trades, to over 400 orphans of both sexes. In this class of institutions there are about 2,000 boys and girls.

2. Parish schools for poor children—established by the rector of the parish, assisted by the commission of charitable subsidies. There were in 1847, eleven of these schools with about 1,000 scholars, between the ages of 5 and 12 years.

3. Schools conducted by religious orders, devoted by their vows to teaching.

i. Schools conducted by a religious order established by Calasanzio, a native of Spain, who opened a free school in Rome, in 1597, which at one time numbered over 1,000 poor children in one of the poorest districts of the city. He died at the advanced age of 92 years, after his "Congregation to the poor" had been erected into a religious order, by the pope, the members taking in addition to the vows of poverty, chastity and obedience, the vow of instruction. The members are called Padri Scolapi, and the schools Scolapi, (contracted from *schole pie*,) or pious schools, of which there are now three, with over 1,000 pupils.

ii. Schools of the Fathers of the Christian doctrine or teaching. This religious congregation, devoted to teaching, is composed of a fraternity established by Cesare de Bees in 1592, (Congregazione degli Agalisti,) and another founded by two priests in 1559. They have two houses, and educate about 700 pupils.

iii. Schools of the Brothers of the Christian doctrine, a fraternity connected with the order of teachers established by De Lasalle in 1684, in France, and transferred to Rome in 1702. As they profess to teach only the elementary studies, they are sometimes called the Ignorantelli. They have three houses and instruct about 1,200 children without fee or reward.

In these schools, much time is given to religious instruction and observances, and the methods which were once in advance of other schools, are now antiquated and formal, to which these fraternities adhere with the tenacity of religious faith.

4. Elementary schools for the gratuitous instruction of poor girls. In one of these, the *conservatori*, sixty girls are boarded, lodged, and instructed; and as soon as they are of suitable age, are taught to spin, weave, make gloves, and other profitable handicrafts.

5. Regional or district schools. Rome is divided into wards, or districts, in which are maintained, partly at the expense of the government, and partly by a small charge on the parents, 246 district or regional schools, (scholae regionarie,) with about 5,000 children. These schools are of three grades—*first*, those which receive boys and girls under five years; *second*, those which receive only girls, in which they are taught, besides the elementary studies, to sew, knit, and embroider; *third*, those which receive only boys over five years. In a few of the two last grades of schools, the course of studies is extended so as to embrace the studies of our public high schools.

6. Schools established by individuals and associations—such as the school of Prince Massieno in one of the poorest districts of Rome—the evening schools established by Casaglio, an engraver in wood, in 1816, and extended by others.

These schools belong to the primary grade, and are intended mainly for the poorer classes.

V. Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

A system of public instruction was established for this kingdom during its occupancy by the French, embracing the three grades of schools: 1. primary; 2. secondary; 3. superior.

1. The law requires at least one elementary school in every commune, for reading, writing, arithmetic, and the catechism. This provision is not very generally enforced. There are a number of primary schools taught by religious congregations, such as the Christian Brothers, and the Fathers Scolapi. In 1847, there were 2,500 primary schools.

2. Secondary instruction is supplied by 780 gymnasia, or classical schools, besides 4 lycea, which confer degrees. There is a large seminary for girls at Naples, and another at Palermo, besides a number of conventual seminaries for female education.

3. Superior education is dispensed by 4 universities:—at Naples, (founded in 1224;) at Catania, (founded in 1445;) at Palermo, (founded in 1447;) at Messina, (founded in 1838,) with an average attendance of about 2,300 pupils.

PORTUGAL.

THE direction and supervision of public instruction in the kingdom of Portugal, is committed to the minister of the home department. The system is as follows:

1. Primary instruction is given through 1,190 elementary schools; some of them conducted on the monitorial, and others on the simultaneous, method. To train teachers for these schools there is one normal school, at which the government supports thirty students.

2. Secondary instruction is imparted through a class of institutions called Lycea, (of which there were 27 in 1850,) in which the Portuguese and Latin languages, mental and moral philosophy, rhetoric, history and geography in reference to the commerce of the country, arithmetic, and geometry in their applications to the arts and manufactures. In some of the Lycea, located in the principal cities, there are classes of theology, the German and Hebrew languages, and commercial law, including particularly, insurance, exchange, &c.; while in those located in the country, rural economy is introduced. Besides these there are 350 classical schools.

3. Superior instruction is given in the university of Coimbra, founded in 1279, in which there are five faculties, viz.: of theology, law, medicine, mathematics and philosophy, and a library of 60,000 volumes.

4. Special instruction is given in a polytechnic academy, a naval academy, a military school, a school of mines, three schools of medicine, a school of civil architecture, a school of painting, and several schools of design.

5. There are several institutions for the encouragement of science and arts. Among these are, the royal academy at Lisbon, the historical society, the national library at Lisbon with 80,000 volumes, the conservatory of arts, twelve museums of coins, antiquities, and specimens of mineralogy, and other departments of natural science, an academy of music, and seven botanic gardens.

SPAIN.

AMID the revolutions of the government and of the country for the last half century, the friends of popular education have not been able, till within a few years past, to make much progress in organizing a system of elementary schools. The universities, and high schools, (many of them in connection with the religious orders) have with difficulty been kept open for the children of the rich and noble. In 1839, under the auspices of an association, including among its members and patrons several of the noblest names of Spain, a normal school for the training of masters in the Lancasterian system, as pursued in the Borough Road School, in London, was established in Madrid. Through the agency of teachers trained in this school, many new schools were opened in different parts of the country, and new life was infused into many schools for poor children connected with convents. In 1849, "on the representation of the Minister of Instruction and Public Works, respecting the desirableness of giving a new organization to the Normal Schools of Elementary Instruction, and in view of the need that exists of forming suitable inspectors for this branch of education," the following royal decree was promulged, which we copy from a recent report of the British and Foreign School Society.

ROYAL DECREE RELATIVE TO EDUCATION. (1849.)

Title I.—*Of Normal Schools.*

1. The normal schools of elementary instruction shall be limited to the following, namely: the central school of Madrid; nine superior schools; twenty elementary schools in the Peninsula, and two in the Balearic and Canary Islands.

2. The central normal school shall preserve its actual object and organization, and shall also form the superior school for the university district of Madrid. The other university districts shall each have its superior school stationed in the town where the university exists; but in case this should be impracticable, it may be established in another place near to it. The towns in the Peninsular where elementary schools are to be placed are the following: Alicante, (or, instead of it, Orihuela,) Badajoz, Burgos, Caceres, Ciudad Real, Cordova, Cuenca, Gerona, Guadalajara, Huesca, Iaen, Leon, Lerida, Lugo, Murcia, Orense, Pamplona, Santander, Soria, and Vittoria.

3. The central normal school shall communicate directly with the

government; the superior schools shall be under the care of the rectors of the universities; and the elementary schools under the directors of the institutes, as delegates of the rectors.

4. The instruction which is to be given in the superior normal schools shall continue for three years, and shall embrace the following matters: Religion and morals; reading and writing; the grammar of the Spanish language, together with some idea of rhetoric, poetry, and Spanish literature; arithmetic in its full extension, with the legal system of weights and measures; the elements of algebra; the principles of geometry, with their application to the uses of common life; the industrial arts, and agriculture; geography and history, especially of Spain; those principles of natural philosophy, chemistry, and natural history, which are indispensably necessary for forming a general knowledge of the phenomena of the universe, and for applying them to the more common uses of life; a practical knowledge of agriculture; pedagogy, or the general principles of education, and methods of teaching.

5. In the normal elementary schools the period of teaching shall be for two years, and the following matters shall be embraced: Religion and morals; reading and writing; Spanish grammar; arithmetic, with the system of weights and measures; the elements of geometry; lineal drawing; the principles of geography, and a sketch of the history of Spain; some ideas of agriculture; and knowledge of the methods of teaching.

6. The programme of studies in the superior schools shall be formed on a plan to meet, as far as possible, the convenience of those who have studied two years in the elementary schools, so that they may pass their third year in them.

7. In the superior schools there shall be both internal and external pupils; the elementary schools shall only have external pupils. The age of entering in reference to becoming a candidate for a mastership in the normal schools shall not be under seventeen, nor over twenty-five.

8. There shall be in each superior normal school a head master, with an annual salary of 10,000 rials, (£100*;) a second master, with 8,000 rials; and a third, with 7,000; a director of the practical school, with a salary corresponding to that of a superior master, according to the royal decree of the 23d of September, 1847; an assistant or usher to the director, with half the salary assigned to the said master; an ecclesiastic intrusted with the instruction of morals and religion, with 2,000 rials of gratification, and the assistants that may be required.

9. In the normal elementary schools there shall be a chief master, with 8,000 rials a year of salary; a director of the practical school and his ushers, with the same salaries as those with the same names as already mentioned for the normal superior schools; the ecclesiastic for the instruction of religion and morals, with a salary of 1,500 rials; and the necessary assistants.

10. The appointment of masters shall be by the government, through means of a public exhibition or trial, giving, notwithstanding, a preference to those now actually holding these situations. The directors of the practical schools, and their assistants, shall be appointed by the several town councils, according to the form prescribed for the ordinary schools.

11. In order that the instruction in agriculture may be conveniently given in the normal superior schools, and may be extended afterward to the other schools in a uniform manner, the masters that may be named for this object shall come in the first place to Madrid, with the

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* 100 reales de vellon are about equal to £1, or $5,00.

enjoyment of their salaries in the form of a pension, in order that they may, for the time judged necessary, make a special study of this science, and acquire the other branches of knowledge connected with it, unless they should previously possess all the knowledge required in this particular branch.

12. By the 11th article of the law, dated 21st July, 1838, all the provinces of the kingdom are under obligation to contribute to the support of these normal schools, and also a certain sum is assigned for the same purpose in the general budget of the state. The respective quotas of the expenses incurred by these establishments shall be as follows: The province of Madrid shall contribute 12,000 rials annually; the provinces of the first class 8,000; those of the second class, 7,000; and those of the third, 6,000 The government shall contribute a sum equal to the salaries of the directors and second masters of the superior schools, together with all the costs of the central school. Each province shall contribute for the support of two pupils in the superior school of their respective districts, a sum equal to that contributed by the government to each establishment, according to their respective localities. The expenses of school materials and attendants shall be paid by the provinces severally where the schools are settled, whether superior or elementary. To aid in these expenses, each establishment shall be entitled to the matriculation fees of the students, and the contributions of the children. The practical schools attached to the normal schools shall continue to be supported as they hitherto have been, by the several town councils. The preservation of the buildings in proper repair shall be the duty of the same councils.

Title II.—*Of the Conditions and Examinations for obtaining the Situation of a Master.*

13. Every candidate for the situation of master in the elementary schools must have studied two years in some one of the normal schools of the two classes.

14. Every candidate for the situation of master in the superior schools must have studied a third year in one of the schools of the same class.

15. Every candidate for an elementary school, the salary of which ascends to 4,000 rials, must obtain the title of a superior master.

16. In future the examinations for a superior school shall take place only in schools of this class. Those for an elementary school shall be held as hitherto, in any of the provinces.

Title III.—*Of Inspectors.*

17. In each province there shall be a school inspector, named by the government. Candidates for this office must have studied three years in the central, or in one of the superior schools, and have acted as a master for at least five years. At present all the directors and masters of the existing or suppressed normal schools shall be eligible for this situation.

18. The salaries of the inspectors shall be, in the provinces of the first class, 10,000 rials; in those of the second class, 9,000; and in those of the third, 8,000; they shall also be paid traveling expenses, and these shall be considered equal to one-third of their annual salary. Both the salaries and the traveling expenses of the inspectors shall be paid by the provinces, and shall be included in their budgets.

19. The provincial inspectors shall be, *ex-officio*, members of the Superior Commission of Primary Instruction in their respective provinces.

20. The said inspectors, in those provinces where a normal elementary school is situated, shall be under obligation to teach in the same, at

certain times of the year, such branches as shall be assigned to them. They shall also supply the places of directors during their absence or illness.

21. There shall be likewise six general inspectors, named and paid by the government, having each the salary of 12,000 rials. To obtain the office of inspector-general the candidates must have held the situation of director of a superior normal school, or that of master in the central school.

22. The principal object of the general inspectors shall be to visit the normal schools, and the ordinary schools in the capitals of the provinces. They shall also attend to all the commissions intrusted to them by the government for the general advancement of elementary instruction.

23. The inspectors, both general and provincial, are prohibited from holding either a public or a private school, or of acting as masters in any establishment, except as is stated in Article 20.

Title IV.—*Of the Secretaries of the Superior Commissions of Elementary Instruction.*

24. The secretaries of the superior commission of elementary instruction shall be appointed, as vacancies occur, from the masters who have obtained the title to a superior school. The government shall name them from a list of three proposed by said commissioners. Their office shall be considered incompatible with any other employment, including that of a master in any of the schools.

25. The salaries of the secretaries shall be, in Madrid, 12,000 rials; in provinces of the first class, 9,000; in those of the second, 8,000; and in those of the third, 7,000. They shall defray the costs of their own stationery, but not those of postage or printing. These salaries and commission expenses shall be, as heretofore, a provincial charge.

26. In extraordinary cases, and when demanded by authority, or the provincial commission, the secretaries may be employed to visit any particular school, but so as to be absent not more than fifteen days.

27. Regulations and special directions shall be made to fix the routine of the schools, the powers and duties of the inspectors, and all other necessary points for the suitable fulfillment of this decree.

SCOTLAND.

The parochial schools of Scotland have been the pride of her own people and the admiration of enlightened men in all countries. The foundations of the system were laid in 1494. In that year it was enacted by the Scotch Parliament, that all barons and substantial freeholders throughout the realm should send their children to school from the age of six to nine years, and then to other seminaries to be instructed in the laws; that the country might be possessed of persons properly qualified to discharge the duties of sheriffs, and to fill other civil offices. Those who neglected to comply with the provisions of this statute were subjected to a penalty of £20. In 1560, John Knox and his compeers hold the following memorable language, in the "First Book of Discipline," presented to the nobility.

> "Seeing that God has determined that his kirk here on earth shall be taught, not by angels, but by men; and seeing that men are born ignorant of God and of godliness; and seeing, also, that he ceaseth to illuminate men miraculously, of necessity it is, that your honors be most careful for the virtuous education and godly up-bringing of the youth of this realm. For as they must succeed to us, so we ought to be careful that they have knowledge, and erudition to profit and comfort that which ought to be most dear to us, to wit, the kirk and spouse of our Lord Jesus Christ. Of necessity, therefore, we judge it, that every several kirk have one schoolmaster appointed; such an one, at least, as is able to teach grammar and the Latin tongue, if the town be of any reputation. And further, we think it expedient, that in every notable town, there should be erected a *college*, in which the arts at least of rhetoric and logic, together with the tongues, be read by sufficient masters, for whom honest stipends must be appointed; as also that provision be made for those that are poor, and not able by themselves or their friends, to be sustained at letters.
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> The rich and potent may not be permitted to suffer their children to spend their youth in a vain idleness, as heretofore they have done; but they must be exhorted, and, by the censure of the kirk, compelled to dedicate their sons by good exercises to the profit of the kirk, and commonwealth; and this they must do, because they are able. The children of the poor must be supported and sustained on the charge of the kirk, trial being taken whether the spirit of docility be in them found, or not. If they be found apt to learning and letters, then may they not be permitted to reject learning, but must be charged to continue their study, so that the commonwealth may have some comfort by them; and for this purpose, must discreet, grave, and learned men be appointed to visit schools, for the trial of their exercise, profit, and continuance; to wit, the ministers and elders, with the best learned men in every town. A certain time must be appointed to reading and learning the catechism, and a certain time to grammar and to the Latin tongue, and a certain time to the arts of philosophy and the other tongues, and a certain time to that study in which they intend chiefly to

travel for the profit of the commonwealth; which time being expired, the children should either proceed to further knowledge, or else they must be set to some handicraft, or to some other profitable exercise."

In 1615, an act of the Privy Council of Scotland empowered the bishops, along with the majority of the landlords or heritors, to establish a school in every parish in their respective dioceses, and to assess the lands for that purpose. This act of the privy council was confirmed by an act of the Scotch Parliament, in 1633; and under its authority, schools were established in the lower and the more cultivated districts of the country. But the system was still far from being complete; and the means of obtaining elementary instruction continued so very deficient, that it became necessary to make a more complete and certain provision for the establishment of schools. This was done by the famous act of 1696, the preamble of which states, that "Our Sovereign Lord, considering how prejudicial the want of schools in many places has been, and how beneficial the establishing and settling thereof will be to this church and kingdom, therefore, his Majesty, with advice and consent, &c." The act went on to order, that a school be established, and a schoolmaster appointed in every parish; and it further ordered that the landlords should be obliged to build a school-house, and a dwelling-house for the use of the master; and that they should pay him a salary, exclusive of the fees of his scholars; which should not fall short of 5*l.* 11*s.* 1*d.* a year, nor exceed 11*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.* The power of nominating and appointing the schoolmaster was vested in the landlords and the minister of the parish; and they were also invested with the power of fixing the fees to be paid him by the scholars. The general supervision of the schools was vested in the presbyteries in which they are respectively situated; who have also the power of censuring, suspending, and dismissing the masters, without their sentence being subject to the review of any other tribunal.

It has been usually expected that a Scotch parish schoolmaster, besides being a person of unexceptionable character, should be able to instruct his pupils in the reading of English, in the arts of writing and arithmetic, the more common and useful branches of practical mathematics, and that he should be possessed of such classical attainments as might qualify him for teaching Latin and the rudiments of Greek.

It would be no easy matter to exaggerate the beneficial effects of the elementary instruction obtained at parish schools, on the habits and industry of the people of Scotland. It has given to that part of the empire an importance to which it has no claim, either from fertility of soil or amount of population. The universal diffusion of schools, and the consequent education of the people, have opened to all classes paths to wealth, honor and distinction. Persons of the humblest origin have raised themselves to the highest eminence in every walk of ambition, and a spirit of forethought and energy, has been widely disseminated.

At the period when the act of 1696 was passed, Scotland, which had suffered greatly from misgovernment and religious persecutions under the reigns of Charles II. and his brother, James II., was in the most unprosperous condition. There is a passage in one of the discourses of the celebrated Scotch patriot, Fletcher of Saltoun, written in 1698, only two years after the act for the establishment of parochial schools had been passed, that sets the wretched state of the country in the most striking point of view.

> "There are, at this day in Scotland, besides a great many families very meanly provided for by the church boxes, with others who, by living upon bad food, fall into various diseases, two hundred thousand people begging from door to door. These are not only no way advantageous, but a very grievous burden to so poor a country. And although the number of them be, perhaps, double to what it was formerly, by reason of this present great distress, yet in all times there has been about a hundred thousand of these vagabonds, who have lived without any regard or subjection, either to the laws of the land, or even those of God and nature. No magistrate could ever discover which way one in a hundred of these wretches died, or that ever they were baptized. Many murders have been discovered amongst them; and they are a most unspeakable oppression to poor tenants, who, if they do not give bread, or some kind of provision, to perhaps forty such villains in a day, are sure to be insulted by them. In years of plenty many thousands of them meet together in the mountains, where they feast and riot for many days; and at country weddings, markets, burials, and other the like public occasions, they are to be seen, both men and women, perpetually drunk, cursing, blaspheming, and fighting together. These are such outrageous disorders, that it were better for the nation they were sold for the gallies or the West Indies, than that they should continue any longer to be a burden and a curse upon us."

No country ever rose so rapidly from so frightful an abyss. In the autumn circuits or assizes for the year 1757, no one person was found guilty, in any part of the country, of a capital crime. And now, notwithstanding the increase of population, and a vast influx of paupers from Ireland, there are very few beggars in the country; nor has any assessment been imposed for the support of the poor, except in some of the large towns, and in the counties adjoining England; and even there it is so light as scarcely to be felt. This is a great and signal change. We can not, indeed, go quite so far as those who ascribe it entirely to the establishment of the parochial system of education. It is, no doubt, most true, that this system has had great influence in bringing about the change; but much must also be ascribed to the establishment of a regular and greatly improved system of government; to the abolition of hereditary jurisdictions, by the act of 1748; and to the introduction of what may, in its application to the vast majority of cases, be truly said to be a system of speedy, cheap and impartial justice. Certainly, however, it was the diffusion of education that enabled the people to avail themselves of these advantages; and which has, in consequence, led to a far more rapid improvement than has taken place in any other European country.

The General Assembly of the Church of Scotland has ever taken an active interest in the parochial schools. Immediately after the passage of the act of 1696, the Presbyteries were instructed to carry it into effect, and *Synods*, to make particular inquiry that it was done. In 1704, the Assembly undertook to supply schools to such part of the highlands and islands as could not be benefited by the act of 1696. In 1705, ministers were ordered to see that no parents neglected the teaching of their children to read. In 1706, it was recommended to such as settled schoolmasters, "to prefer men who had passed their course at colleges and universities, and have taken their degrees, to such as have not." In 1707, Synods and Presbyteries were directed to send into the General Assembly returns of the means and condition of the parochial schools.

The internal dissensions of Scotland and other causes, however, withdrew the public attention from the schools; and the advance of society in other respects, and the want of a corresponding advance in the wages of teachers, and the internal improvement of the schools, all combined to sink the condition of parochial education. In 1794, the General Assembly became roused to the subject. Visitation of the schools was enjoined on the clergy; and they were particularly instructed to inquire into the qualifications of the teachers. In 1802, the Assembly issued the following declaration, &c.:

> "That parochial schoolmasters, by instilling into youth the principles of religion and morality, and solid and practical instruction, contribute to the improvement, order, and success of people of all ranks; and are therefore well entitled to public encouragement: That from the decrease in the value of money. their emoluments have descended below the gains of a day laborer: That it has been found impossible to procure persons properly qualified to fill parochial schools: That the whole order is sinking into a state of depression hurtful to their usefulness: That it is desirable that some means be devised to hold forth inducements to men of good principles and talents to undertake the office of parochial schoolmasters: And that such men would prove instrumental in counteracting the operations of those who may now, and afterward, attempt to poison the minds of the rising generation with principles inimical to religion, order, and the constitution in church and state."

In consequence of this declaration by the Church of Scotland, and of the complaints which were sent up from all parts of the country, Parliament, in the course of the next session, passed the famous act of 1803, which ordains as follows:

> "That, in terms of the act of 1696, a school be established, and a schoolmaster appointed in every parish, the salary of the schoolmaster not to be under three hundred marks, (16*l*. 13*s*. 4*d*..) nor above four hundred, (22*l*. 4*s*. 5*d*.:) That in large parishes, where one parochial school can not be of any effectual benefit, it shall be competent for the heritors and minister to raise a salary of six hundred marks, (33*l*. 6*s*. 8*d*.,) and to divide the same among two or more schoolmasters, as circumstances may require: That in every parish the heritors shall provide a school-house, and a dwelling-house for the schoolmaster, together with a piece of ground for a garden, the dwelling-house to consist of not more than two apartments, and the piece of ground to contain not less than one-fourth of a Scots acre; except in parishes where the salary has been raised to six hundred marks, in which the heritors shall be exempted from providing school-houses, dwelling-houses, and gardens: That the foregoing sums shall continue to be the salaries of parochial schoolmasters till the end of twenty-five years, when they shall be raised to the average value of not less than one chalder and a half of oatmeal, and not more than two chalders; except in parishes where the salaries are divided among two or more schoolmasters in which case the whole sum so divided shall be raised to the value of three chalders; and so *toties quoties* at the end of every twenty-five years, unless altered by parliament: That none of the provisions of this act shall apply to parishes, which consist of a royal burgh, or part of a royal burgh: That the power of electing schoolmasters continue with the heritors and minister, a majority of whom shall also determine what branches of education are most necessary and important for the parish, and shall from time to time fix the school-fees as they shall deem expedient: That the presbyteries of the church shall judge whether candidates for

schools possess the necessary qualifications, shall continue to superintend parochial schools, and shall be the sole judges in all charges against schoolmasters, without appeal or review."

In the year 1828, as the statute had provided, a small addition was made to the emoluments of the parochial schoolmasters, the *maximum* salary having been increased to 34*l.* 4*s.* 4*d.*, and the *minimum* to 25*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.*

The deplorable scenes of outrage and murder, which occurred in the streets of Edinburgh on the 1st of January, 1812, made the city clergy anxious to devise some means for diminishing the mass of crime and misery which was then brought to light. The scheme first proposed, and carried into execution, was to establish sabbath schools in all the parishes within the royalty, to which they gave the name of the Parochial Institutions for Religious Education. It was soon found, however, that the usefulness of these institutions was greatly limited, in consequence of a very great number of the children, for whose benefit they were intended, being unable to read. It was therefore proposed that, in connection with the sabbath schools, a day school should be established, which was accordingly opened on the 29th of April, 1813. This day school took the name of the Edinburgh Sessional School, from the circumstance of its being superintended by a minister or an elder from each kirk-session* in the city. The object of this school is to give instruction to the children of the poor in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Five gratis scholars may be recommended by each kirk-session; but the charge to all the others is sixpence per month. For many years the average attendance has been about 500; so that the school-fees, together with occasional donations, and a small share of the collections made annually at the church doors for the parochial institutions, have hitherto been sufficient to meet the ordinary expenses of the school. At first, no particular regulations were laid down for conducting the Sessional School; but after some years, the system of Dr. Bell was partially introduced. In the year 1819, circumstances led Mr. John Wood, Sheriff-deputy of the county of Peebles, to take an interest in the institution; and that benevolent individual began by degrees to give so much of his time and attention to it, that it soon became almost identified with his name. Under his superintendence, a large and commodious school-house was erected, and the system of teaching entirely re-modeled. In the latter department of his meritorious labors, Mr. Wood did not adopt the particular views of any one writer on education, but collected from all what he thought useful, and arranged it into a method of his own. So judicious is this plan of tuition, that it has not only been crowned with complete success in the Sessional

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* A *kirk-session* is the lowest ecclesiastical court in Scotland, and consists of the clergymen of each congregation, with a small number of lay elders: it generally meets on Sunday, after public worship. The next court, in point of judicial authority, is the *presbytery*, which consists of all the clergymen within a certain district, with a lay elder from each congregation: this court meets once a month. All the presbyteries within given bounds, form a still higher court, called a *synod*, which meets twice in the year. The *General Assembly* is the supreme judicial and legislative court of the Church of Scotland; it consists of clerical and lay representatives from the several presbyteries, of a lay elder from each royal burgh, and of a Commissioner to represent his Majesty, and holds its sittings at Edinburgh, once a year, for about a fortnight.

School, but has been introduced, either partially, or entirely, into many other public and private seminaries, and has, in fact, given a new impulse to the work of elementary instruction throughout Scotland.

In 1837 the Sessional School was, with the approbation of Mr. Wood, constituted the Normal School of the General Assembly, and persons intending to offer themselves as teachers in schools aided by the Education Committee, were furnished with opportunities of conducting classes daily, and of being instructed with pupils of the same standing with themselves. Previous to this movement, in 1835, the Educational Society of Glasgow had been formed, among other purposes, "for the training of teachers for juvenile schools." In 1842, both of these institutions were placed under the direction of the Educational Committee of the Church of Scotland, and the Committee of Council on Education, in that year, made a grant of $50,000 toward providing a new building for the Normal School at Edinburgh, and completing a building already commenced for the Normal School at Glasgow. The two buildings cost about $130,000. In the same year the General Assembly appointed a superintendent to visit the schools aided by the education committee, and voted to aid in the erection of not less than five hundred new schools in connection with destitute parishes.

In 1841, William Watson, Sheriff-substitute of Aberdeenshire, commenced a system of Industrial Schools in Aberdeen, which embraced within its comprehensive grasp, all classes of idle, vagrant children, and in its beneficent operation, cleansed in two years a large town and county of juvenile criminals and beggars. Out of this experiment has grown the system of Ragged and Industrial Schools, which are now found in many of the large towns of England, Scotland and Ireland.

The permanent support of public, and in some cases, free schools, is provided for in certain localities by the income of funds left by will or donation for this purpose. It has been estimated that the annual income of these funds amounts to near $100,000.

There are a number of local societies, such as that for "Propagating Christian Knowledge," founded in 1701, the Gaelic School Society, that of Inverness, Ayrshire, &c., instituted for the purpose of supplying destitute parishes with schools, and of aiding those already established. The sums annually appropriated by the societies, amount to about $75,000.

The Church of Scotland and the Free Church of Scotland, together, appropriate, out of permanent funds and contributions collected in the churches for this purpose, the sum of $50,000 in aid of schools in destitute parishes, and in educating teachers for the parochial schools generally.

In 1836, the sum of $50,000 was voted by Parliament in aid of private subscriptions for the erection of school-houses, and the establishment of Model Schools.

Notwithstanding all these efforts, the extension of the system of parochial schools has not kept up with the growth of the population, especially in the manufacturing towns, and the quality of the education given has not met the demands of educated and wealthy families.

One of the most interesting facts in the history of parochial schools in Scotland, wherever they were adequately maintained, was the attendance in them of children from families widely separated in outward circumstances—the rich and the poor, the laborer with his hands and the laborer with his head. The presence of the children of the better educated and wealthier classes gave importance to the school in the estimation of the poor, and raised the whole tone and standard of manners and intellectual culture within the school and village. It created, too, a bond of union in society, which is thus beautifully noticed by Lord Brougham, (then Henry Brougham,) in some remarks at a public dinner in Edinburgh, in 1825.

> "A public school, like the Old High School of Edinburgh, is invaluable, and for what is it so? It is because men of the highest and lowest rank in society send their children to be educated together. The oldest friend I have in the world, your worthy Vice President, and myself, were at the High School of Edinburgh together, and in the same class along with others, who still possess our friendship, and some of them in a rank of life still higher than his. One of them was a nobleman, who is now in the House of Peers; and some of them were sons of shopkeepers in the lowest parts of the Cowgate of Edinburgh—shops of the most inferior description—and one or two of them were the sons of menial servants in the town. There they were, sitting side by side, giving and taking places from each other, without the slightest impression on the part of my noble friends of any superiority on their parts to the other boys, or any ideas of inferiority on the part of the other boys to them; and this is my reason for preferring the Old High School of Edinburgh to other, and what may be termed more patrician schools, however well regulated or conducted." * *

Another distinguished pupil of this school remarks: "Several circumstances distinguished the High School beyond any other which I attended: for instance, variety of ranks; for I used to sit between a youth of a ducal family and the son of a poor cobler." This fact will distinguish good public schools of a superior grade, provided they are cheap, every where. The High School, like the parochial schools of Scotland, generally is not a free school, but the quarterly charge for tuition is small as compared with the actual cost of instruction in private institutions of the same grade. The fees payable in advance are £1. 1*s.* per quarter. The course of instruction embraces all the branches of the liberal education suitable to boys, from eight to sixteen years of age.

In connection with this mention of the High School of Edinburgh, we will introduce a few historical facts, which point back to a very early period for the origin of the system of parochial schools in Scotland. The funds out of which the edifice now occupied by the high school was built, and which was completed in 1829, at an expense of £34,199, were derived, in part, from endowments belonging to the Abbey of Holyrood, founded by David I., in 1236, with which this school was connected as early as 1500. The school came into the management of the magistrates of Edinburgh in 1566. Prior to that, a grammar school had existed in the Cannongate, under the charge of the friars of the same monastery, "past the memorie of man," as is stated in a memorial to the privy council, in 1580. In the year 1173, Perth and Stirling had their school, of which the monks of Dumfernline were directors. Authentic records introduce us to similar institutions in the towns of Aberdeen and Ayr. The schools in the county of Roxburgh were under the care of the monks of Kelso as early as 1241; those of St. Andrew, in 1233; and those of Montrose, in 1329.

The success of the school system of Scotland is to be attributed to their being erected on a permanent and conspicuous foundation, and to that particular constitution which made the situation of the teacher desirable to young men of education, for its competent salary, permanence, and social consideration. Of the three modes of providing for popular instruction,—that in which the scholars pay every thing, and the public nothing; that in which the public pay every thing by a tax on property, or by avails of permanent funds, and the scholars nothing; and that in which the burden is shared by both,—the latter was adopted in the original plan of the Scotch schools. The existence of the school was not left to chance or charity, but was permanently fixed by law on every parish. The school edifice and the residence of the teacher were to be provided for by public assessment, as much as the church, or the public road, or bridge. The salary of the teachers was so far fixed by law, that it could not sink below the means of a respectable maintenance according to the standard of living in a majority of the country parishes.

Dr. Chalmers, in his valuable "*Considerations on the System of Parochial Schools in Scotland,*" thus notices some of the peculiarities of the system:

> "The universality of the habit of education in our Lowland parishes, is certainly a very striking fact; nor do we think that the mere lowness of the price forms the whole explanation of it. There is more than may appear at first sight, in the very circumstance of a marked and separate edifice, standing visibly out to the eye of the people, with its familiar and oft-repeated designation. There is also much in the constant residence of a teacher, moving through the people of his locality, and of recognized office and distinction amongst them. And perhaps there is most of all in the tie which binds the locality itself to the parochial seminary, that has long stood as the place of repair, for the successive young belonging to the parish; for it is thus that one family borrows its practice from another—and the example spreads from house to house, till it embraces the whole of the assigned neighborhood—and the act of sending their children to the school, passes at length into one of the tacit, but well-understood proprieties of the vicinage—and new families just fall, as if by infection, into the habit of the old ones—so as, in fact, to give a kind of firm, mechanical certainty to the operation of a habit, from which it were violence and singularity to depart, and in virtue of which, education has acquired a universality in Scotland, which is unknown in the other countries of the world."

The best minds of Scotland are at this time directed to a re-construction of the system of parochial schools, or to such an extension of its benefits, as will reach at once, the wants of the large towns, and of the sparsely populated parishes. Among the plans set forth, we have seen nothing more complete than the following, which is signed by some of the most distinguished names in Scotland.

> "The subscribers of this document, believing that the state of Scotland and the general feeling of its inhabitants justify and demand the legislative establishment of a comprehensive plan of national education, have determined that an effort shall be made to unite the friends of this great cause on principles at once so general and so definite as to form a basis for practical legislation; and

with this view, they adopt the following resolutions, and recommend them to the consideration of the country:—

1. That while it might be difficult to describe, with a near approach to statistical precision, the exact condition of Scotland at this moment in regard to education, there can be no doubt that, as a people, we have greatly sunk from our former elevated position among educated nations, and that a large proportion of our youth are left without education, to grow up in an ignorance miserable to themselves and dangerous to society; that this state of matters is the more melancholy, as this educational destitution is found chiefly among the masses of our crowded cities, in our manufacturing and mining districts, and in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland, where the people are not likely spontaneously to provide instruction for themselves; that the quality of education, even where it does exist, is often as defective as its quantity; and that this is a state of things requiring an immediate remedy.

2. That the subscribers hold it to be of vital and primary importance that sound religious instruction be communicated to all the youth of the land by teachers duly qualified; and they express this conviction in the full belief that there will never be any enlargement of education in Scotland, on a popular and national basis, which will not carry with it an extended distribution of religious instruction; while, from the strong religious views entertained by the great mass of the people of this country, and the interest which they take in the matter of education, the subscribers can see in the increase of knowledge only an enlargement of the desire and of the capacity to communicate a full religious education to the generation whose parents have participated in this advantage.

3. That the parish schools of Scotland are quite inadequate to the educational wants of the country, and are defective and objectionable in consequence of the smallness of the class invested with the patronage, the limited portion of the community from which the teachers are selected, the general inadequacy of their remuneration, and the system of management applicable to the schools, inferring as it does the exclusive control of church courts; that a general system of national education, on a sound and popular basis, and capable of communicating instruction to all classes of the community, is urgently called for; and that provision should be made to include in any such scheme, not only all the parish schools, but also all existing schools, wherever they are required by the necessities of the population, whose supporters may be desirous to avail themselves of its advantages.

4. That the teachers appointed under the system contemplated by the subscribers should not be required by law to subscribe any religious test; that Normal Schools for the training of teachers should be established; that, under a general arrangement for the examination of the qualifications of schoolmasters, the possession of a license of certificate of qualification should be necessary to entitle a teacher to become a candidate for any school under the national system; and that provision should be made for the adequate remuneration of all teachers who may be so appointed.

5. That the duty and responsibility of communicating religious instruction to children have, in the opinion of the subscribers, been committed by God to their parents, and through them to such teachers as they may choose to intrust with that duty; that in the numerous schools throughout Scotland, which have been founded and supported by private contribution, the religious element has always held a prominent place; and that, were the power of selecting the masters, fixing the branches to be taught, and managing the schools, at present vested by law in the Heritors of Scotland and the Presbyteries of the Established Church, to be transferred to the heads of families under a national system of education, the subscribers would regard such an arrangement as affording not only a basis of union for the great mass of the people of this country, but a far better security than any that at present exists both for a good secular and a good Christian education.

6. That in regard to a legislative measure, the subscribers are of opinion, with the late lamented Dr. Chalmers, that 'there is no other method of extrication,' from the difficulties with which the question of education in connection with religion is encompassed in this country, than the plan suggested by him as the only practicable one,—namely, 'That in any public measure for helping on the education of the people, government [should] abstain from introducing the element of religion at all into their part of the scheme, and this, not because

they held the matter to be insignificant—the contrary might be strongly expressed in the preamble of their act—but on the ground that, in the present divided state of the Christian world, they would take no cognizance of, just because they would attempt no control over, the religion of applicants for aid—leaving this matter entire to the parties who had to do with the erection and management of the schools which they had been called upon to assist. A grant by the State upon this footing might be regarded as being appropriately and exclusively the expression of their value for a good secular education.'

7. That in order to secure the confidence of the people of Scotland generally in a national system of education, as well as to secure its efficiency, the following should be its main features:—1st, That Local Boards should be established, the members to be appointed by popular election, on the principle of giving the franchise to all male heads of families being householders; and with these Boards should lie the selection of masters, the general management of the schools, and the right, without undue interference with the master, to direct the branches of education to be taught. 2d, That there should be a general superintending authority, so constituted as to secure the public confidence, and to be responsible to the country through Parliament, which, without superseding the Local Boards, should see that their duties are not neglected—prevent abuses from being perpetrated through carelessness or design—check extravagant expenditure—protect the interests of all parties—collect and preserve the general statistics of education—and diffuse throughout the country, by communication with the local boards, such knowledge on the subject of education, and such enlightened views, as their authoritative position, and their command of aid from the highest intellects in the country, may enable them to communicate.

Were such a system adopted, the subscribers are of opinion that it would be quite unnecessary either for the legislature or any central authority to dictate or control the education to be imparted in the National Schools, or to prescribe any subject to be taught, or book to be used; and should a measure founded on these suggestions become law, not only would the subscribers feel it to be their duty, but they confidently believe the ministers and religious communities in the various localities would see it to be theirs, to use all their influence in promoting such arrangements as, in the working of the plan, would effectually secure a sound religious education to the children attending the schools."

In September, 1847, on the invitation of an educational association of Glasgow, a large meeting of teachers from various parts of Scotland was convened in the High School of Edinburgh, and "the Educational Institute of Scotland" was formed. The following is the preamble of the constitution:

"As the office of a public teacher is one of great responsibility, and of much importance to the welfare of the community; as it requires for its right discharge, a considerable amount of professional acquirements and skill; and as there is no organized body in Scotland, whose duty it is to ascertain and certify the qualifications of those intending to enter upon this office, and whose attestation shall be a sufficient recommendation to the individual, and guarantee to his employers; it is expedient that the teachers of Scotland, agreeably to the practice of other liberal professions, should unite for the purpose of supplying this defect in the educational arrangements of the country, and thereby of increasing their efficiency, improving their condition, and raising the standard of education in general."

Among the modes of advancing the objects of the Institute, are specified "the dissemination of a knowledge of the theory and practice of education by means of public lectures, and the institution of libraries."

NORMAL SCHOOLS

AT

EDINBURGH AND GLASCOW

The Normal School at Edinburgh originated in 1826, when the Education Committee of the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland placed a few teachers appointed to their schools in the Highlands, at one of their best conducted schools in Edinburgh, for a short course of preparatory training. In 1838, the Sessional School of Tron Parish, was transferred to that Committee, to enable them to pursue this plan with more convenience and effect. It was the best model elementary school in Scotland, and it was used, as much as possible, to all the intents of a normal seminary for teachers, under the care of the Assembly Committee, down to the year 1845, when the new building in Castle Place, built expressly for a Normal School, was occupied for the same purpose, with a model school constituted of children from the immediate neighborhood.

In the mean time, an Institution had been established in Glasgow, mainly through the efforts of Mr. Stow, and an association, called the Glasgow Education Society, for the purpose of "training" a class of teachers who should be qualified to afford to the neglected children of the poor in that city, much of that moral education which was wanting to them at home. The attempt to erect a suitable building for the accommodation of the Normal and Model schools, embarrassed the Society, and about the year 1840, the institution was transferred to the General Assembly's Committee; and in that year the Committee of Council on Education made a grant of 10,000*l.* to the same Committee, to enable them to complete the building at Glasgow, and erect a new edifice at Edinburgh, on condition that 5,000*l.* should be raised for the latter purpose by the General Assembly.

The circumstances out of which these institutions arose, are thus noticed by Mr. Gordon, her Majesty's Inspector of Schools for Scotland, from whose Report for 1847, the following account is compiled:

1. It was seen that a considerable part of the lower population, whether because schools were wanting, or ill conducted, or ill attended, had received little or no education; and it was judged that, if more attention were bestowed upon the preparation of teachers, an improvement in this respect would take place, not merely from the abler tuition so provided, but from that better inclination to be instructed, which follows in general the appearance of intelligent and zealous masters. It was supposed, also, that such a preparation of the teachers, at once more liberal and more specially directed to their profession, would help to the attainment of their proper place in the community, and so benefit the education of the country; for if the increased resort to schools should do little for their advantage in respect of income, some advantage of the kind would be the more apt, with every addition to their merits, to arise from other quarters; if not, the benefit would remain, of their possessing as much intelligence as would itself prove a source of enjoyment and respectability.

2. In the next place, the population had so far outgrown the means of education provided by law, that the unendowed schools were more than three times the number of the endowed, while their masters were generally inferior to those of the latter class, and often so unequal to the duty they had undertaken, as to suggest forcibly the need of their being somehow enabled to come to it with more of the requisite qualification. And this appeared the more needful, as the non-parochial teachers were not subject to the same legal test of qualification as those of the established schools, while the want of such a test in their case might be, in some measure, supplied by a system of preliminary training.

3. The opportunities of employment opened up by the extension of commerce, manufactures, mining, and other kinds of industry, had indirectly tended to lower still more the qualification of those who were left to pursue the business of teaching.

4. Another effect of the extension of the national industry in these departments was to withdraw from school a great proportion of the children of the laboring classes at a very early age; and it was plain that the shorter the period of education, so much the more need that the masters should be competent to employ it to good account.

5. It was observed that there is a tendency in the occupations connected with some of the branches of industry now mentioned, to impair the character of domestic education among the laboring classes; and the remedy was looked for in the school. The school came, on this account, to be considered, rather more than it had been, as a place not merely of instruction, but of general education—as appropriating, in fact, somewhat more of the office of the parent. It followed that the general character and manners of the masters became to the promoters of schools a matter of still greater interest than before; and the same could be, at once, discovered and formed, or in some degree influenced, in the Normal School.

6. There was another and more special reason for the establishment of schools of this sort, in the improvements which had been recently introduced upon the methods of elementary instruction, and this chiefly in the Sessional School, Market Place, Edinburgh. To establish a normal seminary might well be considered as the readiest mode of diffusing a knowledge of such improvements; and accordingly the Sessional School now mentioned was among the first, if not the first in Scotland, which came to be employed for normal purposes.

7. It became more commonly known than before, that institutions of the kind had been tried in Prussia, Germany, and France, and with results that might well tempt the experiment elsewhere.

These circumstances suggested the formation of a seminary for the preparation of teachers, in the hope of thereby amending much of what was seen to be amiss in the state of education throughout the country; and accordingly the education sought aid of the Committee of Council, which was granted to the extent of 10,000*l*. for building purposes, and 1,000*l*. annually, towards the current expenses of the two institutions,—the sums to be divided equally between them, and the General Assembly obligating itself to appropriate a like sum to the same objects.

Each seminary is superintended by a Sub-committee of the General Assembly's Education Committee, who appoint the masters, regulate the expenditures, the rate of school-fees, the terms of admission, and other matters.

Each seminary has a fund applicable to its uses of 1,000*l*. besides a revenue from school fees, amounting to about 250*l*. more. Both are open to candidates of all religious denominations, and to students who do not reside, as to those who do reside in the institution. About one-half of the students are admitted free, (their expenses of board and tuition are paid out of the permanent resources of the Committee)—one quarter reside in the institution at their own expense, and one quarter reside out of the institution and pay their own board, and an admission fee of one guinea. The average number in attendance is fifty.

The board of instruction consists of a Rector, a first, second and third master, who give their time wholly to their respective seminaries, and three other masters who teach only for certain hours in each day.

The opportunities of instruction in the arts of teaching and of school management, which form the distinguishing object of these schools, have been provided in three different ways—by practice, by example, and by lecture. The students are appointed to teach, and to observe the teaching of the masters in the model or practising schools, which are constituent parts of the seminaries, and which, though intended at the same time for the "instruction of the children of the poor," must be regarded mainly as subservient to the normal office of the institutions with which they are connected.

The attendance at each school amounts to about 550.

The methods employed in the practising schools are not distinguished from those which are common in other schools of the better class. Normal schools may be expected to teach something of the nature of all methods of any recognised value; but their practising departments must be conducted on some single, congruous system. The simultaneous method, accordingly, is practised in both schools, but with that care to ascertain the impression made upon the minds of individuals, without which that mode is incomplete. The monitorial plan is not employed in either school, simply because the aid it furnishes is not there needed; but a semblance of it is presented in the teaching of the students. The Glasgow school has still some features of the system on which it was originally conducted—the gallery exercises, among which is the admirably conducted Bible lesson, frequent singing, much precision in the movements of the classes, regulated gymnastics, a style of interrogation that supplies great part of the answer, and that negation of all distinctions by means of places or reward, which has been noticed as marking, with less questionable propriety, the order of the students when classed together for their separate instruction.

In the Edinburgh school, each student is occupied in instructing a section of the pupils two hours daily. One section of the children is placed under charge of two students, who teach that section alternately for the space of fourteen days. Another section in a different stage of progress then succeeds, and remains under the same charge for the same length of time; and so on, till, in the course of two months, an occasion of teaching has been given to each, in all the branches and in every stage of progress. Meantime, their manner of conducting their respective sections is observed either by the rector, who is present in the practising school for this purpose one hour and a half daily on an average, or by one or other of the masters, who employ two hours daily in like manner,—each master, however, confining himself to a distinct section of the school. The students are thus under direct observation, during the greater part of the time they are employed in teaching; and afterwards, in their private class they receive the remarks which the rector and the masters may have made upon the manner in which they severally appeared to have performed their tasks.

They are, next, allowed to see the masters teach daily, for a certain length of time, amounting on an average to one hour and a half. On these occasions, all the students are present at the same time, and all the branches are taught in rotation, upon the days specified in the Time-table appended. They are required to mark closely everything in the masters' mode of conducting the different lessons, and to note down their remarks for their own benefit afterwards. The notes are subsequently examined: and it is soon perceived, in the character of their own succeeding practice, how far they had profited from the example of the masters.

Lastly, they have all, both male and female, an opportunity of attending a weekly lecture delivered by the rector upon the theory and art of teaching, the design of which is described as being "to counteract the tendency of the practical engagements of the elementary school to degenerate into mere routine and a copy of the superintending master." The course consists of twenty lectures, occupied with the various topics set forth in the appended Syllabus.

If the object of the *common* school be not merely to instruct, but to educate; not merely to inform the understanding, but to cultivate the entire character, the object of the *normal* school is assuredly no less comprehensive. The schoolmaster, it is always to be remembered, is a moral teacher, and must be prepared expressly for that delicate and difficult office. The normal schools accordingly provide for communicating this qualification.

Each hour in the day, from 6 A. M. to half-past 10 P. M., has its allotted occupation, fixed by rules which are unvarying, and, so far as could be perceived, invariably observed. Half an hour is set apart in the morning for devotional exercises, and half an hour for the same in the evening. On Sabbath one hour and a half is employed, under the rector, in exercises upon Bible history and Christian doctrine: public worship is attended in one or other of the churches of the city; and in the evening, written abstracts of the discourses heard during the day are prepared and submitted to the rector's inspection. These arrangements mark a due solicitude for the moral well-being of the students, and a sense of its essential connection with the professional qualification of a school-master.

At the same time, the general culture of the students at the Normal school almost necessarily receives a bent to their future calling—and this from the proper influences of the place, in particular from the fellowship of so many engaged in the same studies, brought together after a common trial, looking forward to the same pursuit, and entertaining the same hopes, anxieties, and ambitions. A society so formed begets a bias to the professed object so decided, that there is less hazard than might have been expected of the superior instruction of a normal school tempting to aspire beyond the schoolmaster's calling.

The following is the plan on which both schools are now conducted:

The Directors have considered, in the first place, that schools for the children of the poor, if they do not need to afford more than a limited elementary education, behove to afford the same by masters as competent within their range as any masters intrusted with a more extended charge; nay, that there are difficulties in the management of such schools, from the short and broken attendance of the pupils, that require in the teachers somewhat more than the usual ability and devotion to their duty. They have considered, further, that a more advanced education is sought at many schools, the teachers of which are not qualified, and have had no means of being qualified, to supply it. For these reasons they have proposed—

1. That two distinct classes of teachers shall be educated at the normal seminaries—one for elementary schools, the other for those of a higher or mixed kind, such as the parochial schools.

The examinations for admission are now conducted by those who, from their office, may be fairly presumed competent; and, at the same time, disinterested in the absence of all relation to the candidates. But the case is somewhat altered when the student appears for a final examination; for then, though the competency may be still the same, he has been the pupil of those who are now to judge of his proficiency—in other words, of the success with which his studies have been conducted, and, by inference, of the skill with which these studies have been directed. The following rule has, therefore, been laid down:—

2. That the first examination shall be conducted by the General Assembly's Committee and the rectors and masters; the final examination by the same parties assisted by a professor in the University and by a master in the High School of Edinburgh or Glasgow.

It is further proposed to extend the range of study at the institution for the teachers of both classes, and, above all, to impart to them a fuller and more exact knowledge of the subject with which, from the beginning, they had been partially acquainted. In this, the Directors have proceeded upon these views—that if a teacher's knowledge should considerably exceed what he is called on to impart, there is no prejudice, but the reverse, to his ability for teaching,—those who have been educated in higher things being commonly found to excel in the lower paths of instruction; that the estimation and authority of a teacher always rise with his attainments: that a general intelligence beyond the limit referred to bears directly upon that part of the work of education which is distinguished from mere instruction; that the more promising youth have the better chance of being brought forward under such a master: and, moreover, that to the master himself the possession of a fund of liberal knowledge is likely to prove a source at once of comfort and of energy. For these reasons,—

3. The students, before leaving the institution, are to prove a qualification of defined extent in the branches under noted:

First Class.—1, *English reading;* 2, *writing;* 3, *English grammar,*—elementary manual, and an enlarged course (*e. g.* Latham's), with etymology; 4, *English composition*—abstracts and original essays; 5, *arithmetic*—theory and practice, a full course, with mental arithmetic, book-keeping; 6, *elementary geography,* followed by a course of physical geography and use of globes; 7, *general history,* with at least one portion of particular history (*e. g.* that of Great Britain or the period of the Reformation): 8, *natural history;* 9, *singing;* 10, *linear drawing;* 11, *pedagogy;* 12, *religious knowledge*—(*a*) Bible doctrine (Confession of Faith and Shorter Catechism); (*b*) Bible analysis (examination of a given portion of the text;) (*c*) history of the Old and New Testaments, followed by (*d*) outlines of ecclesiastical history and the evidences of revealed religion.

Second Class.—All the branches of the preceding class, with 13, *Latin*—Livy, Virgil, Terence, themes, English rendered into Latin, Roman antiquities, synonymes, &c.; 14, *Greek*—Analecta Minora, Greek Testament, two books of the Anabasis, two books of Homer; 15, *mathematics*—a full course of Euclid, practical trigonometry, mensuration of surfaces and solids, land-surveying, algebra to cubic equations, elements of mechanics.

The Directors are well aware that this course of study is not to be completed in a short time; and moreover, that the number of the teachers sent forth must diminish, as the term of their attendance is extended. Nevertheless, they prefer a distinction for the seminaries rather in the accomplishment of a few to that extent, than in the slightest preparation of many; and consider that they thus afford to the normal system a better chance of attaining its due estimation and success. They do not, in the mean time, fix the utmost length of the attendance, but they prescribe—

4. That the least period of attendance for students of both classes shall be eighteen months.

At the same time, precautions will be taken to insure that the individuals favored with this prolonged, invaluable opportunity of study are not such as shall disappoint expectation afterwards.

5. At the end of three months from the periodical admission of students, the rectors shall report to the directing Committees on the general conduct of the students, the progress they have made and the capacity they have shown during that time. The report to be engrossed in the minutes of the institution.

These regulations apply to all students admitted on the footing of free maintenance; and to those, also, who are not so favored, but who are willing to comply with the rule fixing the least period of attendance. There is, however, another class of persons who seek admission, consisting of those who could not venture to compete for the benefit of free maintenance, and have not the means of maintaining themselves for even the least appointed term; of those, also, who can afford but little time from other charges with which they are already occupied; and of those who, having completed a curriculum of literature and philosophy at some university, require no more of the normal institutions than what they afford of instruction upon the arts of teaching and school management. It is therefore proposed—

6. To admit students at their own expense at any time without examination, except by the rector, upon evidence of respectable character, and for such period as they may find convenient to remain; and to afford them an examination at any time upon their professing the qualification required of the regular students at the termination of their course.

It has been further arranged that, to give a fair opportunity to the students of mastering the required qualification, not only the term of the attendance shall be prolonged, but that more time than heretofore shall be allowed for their own study and instruction. This time is to be taken from their occupation in the practicing schools: where it is not thought necessary they should be employed so much as heretofore, nor quite so much at one period of the course as at another. Accordingly—

7. One hour daily is alloted to the students for teaching in the practicing schools during the first half of the term, and two hours during the second.

At the same time, to maintain the due importance of this practice, and to give the advantage of carrying it on with mutual aid and under mutual observation, it is appointed—

8. That one hour daily shall be devoted to the teaching of a class by one student in presence of all the rest, each having the same office in rotation on successive days; and to hearing the remarks of all upon the manner in which the task has been performed—the rector presiding.

The practicing schools having now less aid than formerly from the services of the students, the want will be supplied by the employment of assistant teachers and apprentice-pupils. At the same time, the attendance will be reduced to an amount more suited to the extent of the accommodation, to 350 in the one institution, and 500 in the other. In short, the Directors have proposed to remodel this department, and have resolved—

9. That the practicing school is to be considered as mainly subservient to the normal school; and to be so formed as to afford to the students opportunities of teaching all parts of an elementary course, and if possible the elements of some branches more advanced.

These arrangements have led to others of less moment, which it is unnecessary here to describe. For one thing, they have occasioned another distribution of time for the occupation of the rectors and the masters; in the settling of which, the general principle has been held in view, that the instruction of the students should be intrusted as much as possible to the rector and the mathematical tutors; while the masters will have charge of the practising schools, and the superintendence of the students when teaching. The regulation on this head is—

10. That the students shall be under the rector four hours daily for instruction in the branches they are required to study, except the mathematical, which will be conducted by the tutor for one hour and a half in the evening; that they shall also, while teaching in the practicing school, be under the occasional supervision of the rector, as well as that of the masters.

After all, it is not by any organization, however carefully or well contrived, that the excellence of a school is to be secured; everything still depending on the genius of the master. And if this be true in regard to common schools, it is still more so in regard to those, which have the exemplification of good methods for their distinguishing object. The Directors have therefore signified that their main reliance is upon the devotedness and skill of the rectors and the masters; whom they have appointed to find for these institutions their proper position in the educational system of the country.

It is not forgotten that a normal school, though perfect in all respects, would not present a model for exact imitation in all cases, and that the application of its methods to the management of common schools must be left, in great part, to the judgment of the masters of the latter. No school, indeed, can be the very pattern for others that exist under different circumstances; and the normal schools are, from their very nature, singular in some of their conditions. It is enough that in them, so far as they are normal, the general principles of method are taught, exemplified, and practiced. To the masters it may be reserved, in mere deference to their self respect to form the plan of their own schools, according to their own knowledge of what the locality requires or permits, and according to the general notions of method which they have received. In short, it is as little desirable as it is practicable, that the normal schools should be altogether such as to afford an absolute rule and exact model for the guidance of the pupil, in the construction and management of his own.

Department for Female Teachers.

Female Schools of Industry.—There is a description of schools which is now rapidly increasing in Scotland, and extending to a lower class of the population than had been wont to have or to consider them as at all needful—the Female Schools of Industry. This is mainly the consequence of elementary education, in general, having taken more of a practical character than formerly; for the male children, somewhat modifying the course of literary instruction, and occasionally attempting a specific preparation for some particular calling or handicraft. The same tendency would have led, of itself, to an instruction of the other sex in the usual arts of domestic industry; but it was aided by this, that, while the period of school attendance was the same for both sexes, it was not requisite for the female to proceed so far in the different literary branches as the other, and so the opportunity arose of attending to those things that form the proper objects of a female school. The promoters of such schools are commonly benevolent ladies, who are no strangers to the cottages of the poor, and who would endeavor by instruction of this sort to improve their domestic condition. It is not unusual, too, for the proprietors of public works, manufacturing or mining, to favor the people in their service with institutions of the kind. The Directors have, in these circumstances, attached to each of their normal seminaries a department for instruction in needlework and knitting, and have opened it freely to female students desirous of undertaking the charge of schools of this description.

This division of the seminary is conducted by the matron of the establishment at Edinburgh, and at Glasgow by a mistress engaged for that single purpose. All the female children above seven years of age at the practising schools are, in both cases, permitted to attend in this department, without additional fee; and nearly all avail themselves of the privilege, each class attending for one hour daily. Their attention is wholly confined to the different sorts of work mentioned, and from the mistresses they receive neither literary nor religious instruction. The female students attend in this division during the whole time it is assembled—that is, for two hours and a half daily—and they are employed mainly in directing the classes, or attending to the directions of the mistress; and are themselves instructed, during a portion of the time, by the mistress at the Glasgow school, in the more difficult kinds of work. In the general model school for the children of both sexes, they are employed four hours daily—half the time occupied, under the master's eye, in teaching the female classes; the other half, in observing how the masters teach. Two hours daily, they are themselves under instruction in reading, religious knowledge, and the elements of grammar and geography.

Female students are admitted under the same regulation which has been formed in regard to those of the other sex who have not the benefit of free maintenance, and who do not engage to remain for any certain period. They are examined upon their knowledge of the elementary branches, before entering, only by the rector, and few have been at any time rejected. The admission fee is £1 for the first four months, 5s for each of the next four months, and no further payment is required for the remainder of the term, the duration of which is optional. Admission is allowed at any time of the year.

No regular examination is undergone by the female students upon leaving the seminary; and far the greater number have left it to enter on the charge of schools to which they had been recommended by the Directors, —not more than four leaving the Edinburgh School, without any certain engagement.

It is not proposed, in the mean time, to place this department of the institution under any stricter regulations than the following;—1. To withhold certificates from those who have attended for a shorter period than three months; and, 2. To grant certificates to those who have proved a certain qualification in the elementary branches, after a formal examination by the superintending Committees, assisted by the rectors and masters.

Syllabus of the Rector's Lectures on the Theory and art of Teaching, addressed to the Students of the Normal Institution, Edinburgh.

Introductory.

1. The importance of education—most needful in every view—practicable—hopeful and encouraging.

2. Moral requisites and qualifications of the educator; (*a*) A correct view of his office; (*b*) Proper motives; (*c*) A well regulated temper and disposition; (*d*) A well-stored mind; (*e*) Aptitude to teach; (*f*) An irreproachable life.

I.—*Man, the subject of Education.*

Knowledge of this an essential preliminary; mental philosophy has not afforded the practical aid that might have been expected.

The order, mode, and extent of the development of the human powers considered, with a practical reference. 1. Physical—historically first; nature requiring the main share of time for sleep and recreation; mental exertion, short and diversified; instincts to be regulated.

2. Moral powers awake nearly at the dawn of existence; should be early addressed and practically exercised; impressed with the idea of God and accountability to Him; charity, purity, and uprightness inculcated.

3. Intellectual—(*a*) Intuitive—developed through the perceptive powers; truths and facts impressed by attention, recalled by memory, combined by conception; importance of educating the senses and training the powers of observation through object-lessons; (*b*) Operative—*understanding* investigates truth; *judgment* traces its relations and tendency; (*c*) Creative—imagination—reason controlling all.

II.—*The End and Object of Education.*

The comprehensive and harmonious development of the powers in due place and proportion; errors arising from the excess, deficiency, or misapplication of any element; definitions of different writers.

III.—*The Means for attaining the End.*

Pedagogy, education (properly so called) extending to every department throughout—(1) childhood; (2) youth; (3) manhood—from the household to the school, from the school to the world and church.

Pedentics, instruction or schooling; that department which is proper to the intermediate period, youth, when the faculties are made conversant with facts, occurrences, objects, and otherwise exercised for their due development.

A. The parties by whom—the field in which—this should be carried out.

Hospital, public school, or private education considered.

B. The subject-matter of instruction:—(*a*) From the existence of man—speech and song; (*b*) From the existence of space and matter—mathematics and form (painting, sculpture, &c.); (*c*) From the relation of man to God—Christianity; (*d*) To the world—political economy; (*e*) To animals—natural history; (*f*) To substances—chemistry, &c.

The due place and comparative importance of the subjects of elementary and superior instruction. Reading, the key to all—

Organs of speech—origin and import of speech—invention of writing—alphabet, printing—on teaching the alphabet—Lancaster—Jacotot—Pillans.

Elementary reading—1st. The dogmatic system overburdens the memory; 2nd. The scientific, difficult to accomplish in English; 3rd. Intellectual, the sense helping the sound.

Theory of explanation and interrogation, elliptical and suggestive methods considered—treatment of answers received—moral enforcing—application of lesson read.

Examination of manuals for reading, and instructions in the proper way of teaching them.

Class method—individual, monitorial, simultaneous; class conducted by single examination.

Method not much apart from the man—consideration of the different subjects of school instruction—method of treating and art of imparting them, viz. spelling, grammar, religious instruction, geography, writing, drawing, arithmetic.

School organization:

Arrangement of classes—tripartie division—school furnishing.

Discipline:

Theory of rewards and punishments.

(*Note.*)—The design of these lectures is to counteract the tendency of the practical engagements of the elementary school to degenerate into mere routine, or a copy of the superintending master. The subject discussed in the connected series is proposed as a theme for a weekly exercise, and is found highly beneficial, not only as regards the proficiency of the students in English composition, but likewise as it engages their best thoughts in giving their own views of the different topics, and imparts an elevated tone to their professional pursuits.

NORMAL TRAINING SCHOOL

AT

EDINBURGH, IN CONNECTION WITH THE CHURCH.

The Normal Training School at Edinburgh, in connection with the Free Church of Scotland, was established in 1843, soon after the secession of that Church from the Established Church, and as a part of its educational scheme. In 1848, the Education Committee, appointed by the General Assembly of the Free Church, purchased the premises known as the "Moray House," in the neighborhood of the Holyrood, and erected a new hall, and fitted up the whole at an expense of about £9,000, ($45,000) for the accommodation of the Normal School, and the Practicing Department.

Pupils are admitted, on passing in a satisfactory manner an entrance examination, to the privileges of the institution, which embrace not only a thorough course of normal training, but also direct pecuniary aid as bursaries, or exhibitions. Those bursaries are to be competed for from year to year, and to be awarded to those only, who, having successfully passed the entrance examination, are willing to devote themselves to teaching, and to declare, at the same time, that but for this assistance, they could not afford the means requisite to prepare them, fully and satisfactorily, for their important work.

Although persons of both sexes, and of all religious denominations, are received to the entrance examination, the subjects of examination, and the course of study afterward entered upon, are determined and regulated mainly with a view to the benefit of those who intend to devote themselves to teaching in connection with the Free Church. It is conducted by means of printed papers, and generally occupies a week. These examination-papers have always been drawn by distinguished practical teachers, intimately acquainted with the subjects intrusted to them; and the written answers of the candidates for admission, after being carefully reviewed by the same gentlemen. are handed for revision to the rector and tutors of the institution. who again make known the results to the education committee. with whom rests the final decision as to those who are qualified to enter, with advantage, upon the prescribed course of study and training.

The conditions of the competition for bursaries are stated in the following regulations:—

I. Candidates must not be less than seventeen years of age, and shall be required to declare, before entering on the competition, that it is their wish and intention to devote themselves to the profession of teaching.

II. Each candidate must produce a certificate of his moral and religious character from the minister of the congregation to which he belongs. Such certificate shall also set forth his attainments in scholarship, the degree of aptitude for practical teaching which he may seem to possess, and any circumstances in his history with which the committee ought to be acquainted

III. Each candidate must be in attendance at the seminary on the morning of Saturday, 26th September, for the purpose of being enrolled as a candidate.

IV. The competition will be chiefly conducted by written questions, and the examinators will be guided in awarding the bursaries by the comparative results of the examination, the certificates of the ministers, and the report of the rector of the normal school in regard to aptitude for practical teaching.

V. The committee will not defray the traveling expenses of unsuccessful candidates, but they would strongly urge, that when necessary, these expenses should be defrayed by local parties acquainted with and interested in the young men recommended.

VI. The bursaries shall consist of three classes, for which sums of 10*l.*, 15*l.*, and 20*l.*, shall be set apart respectively.

VII. The bursers shall give regular attendance in the normal school from the beginning of October until the end of July, and shall during that period be in all respects subject to the discipline and arrangements of that institution. The bursaries shall be payable in monthly installments, and the committee reserve to themselves full power at any time to withhold further payments on considering the periodical reports made to them by the rector and tutors regarding the conduct and progress of the bursers.

N. B. There must be throughout the church many under the age of seventeen, whom it is highly desirable to aid and encourage in their preparatory studies. Deacons' courts and presbyteries are earnestly recommended to use every exertion in their power for bringing forward such youths, until they have arrived at the stage which will bring them within the scope of the committee's scheme of encouragement by bursaries.

The following are the subjects of the entrance examination for the three classes of bursaries:—

CLASS I.

English literature and grammar.

Geography, especially that of Europe and Palestine.

History.—British history, with the elements of general history.

Arithmetic.—Proportion with vulgar and decimal fractions.

Latin.—Rudiments; grammatical exercises, large print; and Cornelius Nepos' Life of Miltiades.

Scripture Knowledge.—Bible and shorter catechism.

N. B. A knowledge of Gaelic will be regarded as equivalent to this amount of attainments in Latin.

CLASS II.

All the branches of the preceding class, and Latin.

Latin.—Cæsar, book i.; eclogues of Virgil; and grammatical exercises.

Greek.—Greek grammar; Xenophon's Anabasis, chapters, first, second, and third, of book i.

Algebra.—The elementary rules, fractions and simple equations.

CLASS III.

All the branches of the preceding classes, and

Latin.—Virgil, vi., Book of Æneid; Sallust's Catilinarian Conspiracy, and Mair's Introduction.

Greek.—Xenophon's Anabasis, books i. and ii.; gospel of Matthew.

Algebra.—Involution, evolution, surds, quadratic equation.

Geometry.—Euclid's Elements, first six books.

Text Books.—Chamber's History of English Literature; Reid's English Grammar; Reid's Geography; Chamber's History of the British Empire; White's Elements of Universal History, or Tytler's Elements of General History.

The following works are recommended for perusal and study:—Chamber's Cyclopædia of English Literature; Allan and Cornwall's English Grammar; Malte Brun and Balbi's System of Geography; Professor Thompson's Arithmetic; Vincent's Exposition of the Shorter Catechism; Tract Society's Companion to the Bible; and Abridgment of Horn's Introduction to the Study of the Scriptures.

The course of instruction upon which the students enter, after having passed this examination, embraces Biblical instruction, English literature and grammar, history and geography, arithmetic, algebra and geometry, plane and spherical trigonometry, practical mathematics and mechanics, Latin, Greek, and the elements of Hebrew, drawing and music, chemistry, botany, vegetable physiology, and cottage gardening, with the theory and practice of the art of teaching.

A careful examination of the table, in which are recorded the results of the entrance examination, enables the rector and tutors to determine, with almost perfect precision, the place which each student should occupy, and the studies to which his attention should be chiefly directed. The attainments of the young men in Biblical knowledge, in English literature and grammar, in geography and history, are not so unequal as to render necessary or desirable a separate classification, while prosecuting the study of these branches. Nor has it been found expedient to arrange the students in different sections, when engaged in the study of French, chemistry, drawing, and music; and both in the practice of teaching, and in listening to the exposition, by the rector, of the various methods and systems, or to his criticism of the mode in which particular lessons have been communicated by particular students, no separate classification has been made.

By the Time Table, drawn up for the regulation of the students in 1849, it appears that five hours weekly (one hour a day) are devoted to Biblical instruction; four hours to English literature and grammar; two hours to history and geography; two hours to lectures, in connection with recitations in a text book, in chemistry; two hours to drawing; three to French; and two hours to instruction in music, with practice at intervals every day. In the higher departments of study, Latin, Greek, geometry, algebra, plane and spherical trigonometry, with their practical applications, the students are arranged into divisions, junior and senior. The proficiency in these branches is not very great, although the stimulus of competition for the bursaries is showing itself in drawing to the institution a large number of right-minded, and properly-prepared candidates, and in a more comprehensive and thorough course of instruction during their connection with the institution.

A knowledge of the history, principles, and practice of education, is given as follows:

First, The rector expounds, conversationally, but with a degree of minuteness and care that shows how fully he appreciates the importance of this department of his labors, the methods that are employed in the model schools of the institution, in teaching the various branches. He himself exemplifies the application of every principle that may seem in the least recondite, gives its philosophy, and shows how it may be applied in conducting the work of the school-room. In this way it may be said, that every method deserving examination, as based upon any philosophical principle, is not only elaborately examined and minutely expounded, but skillfully exemplified in the presence of the students.

Second, Essays are prescribed to be written on subjects, embracing the whole theory of teaching, and requiring, for their discussion, a good extent of reading and study. The best of these essays are afterward read in the hearing of the assembled body of students, and their merits and defects carefully pointed out.

Third, A systematic analysis and examination of all the leading educational works in our own language is made during the session. A particular work is assigned to each student, in turn, who is charged with the preparation of a careful analysis and examination of its contents. This paper is read before the rector in the presence of all the students, who express their opinion generally, and specify what they consider to be most valuable in the views presented in it. The rector sums up by an exposition of what appears to him to be its real character and value.

In this way the students have an opportunity, during the session, of acquiring a tolerably satisfactory knowledge of the principles and history of teaching, of the various methods which deserve examination, as well as of all the details of school organization and management.

The practical instruction of the normal pupils is obtained through the model schools attached to the institution. These schools contain upward of five hundred children, arranged in six classes, under ten teachers, and nineteen pupil teachers, acting under the personal direction of the rector, who has the immediate charge of the first class.

In these model schools the students have an opportunity of seeing all the branches usually pursued in the Elementary school of Scotland, taught by skillful and experienced masters, and, in their observations of the methods practiced, have the advantage of the personal direction and superintendence of the Rector. The means by which they themselves are trained to skill in the communication of knowledge are twofold.

First, They are employed two hours weekly in teaching, in the model schools, under the superintendence of the rector, together with the master of the department in which they are practicing.

Second, One hour, weekly, is set apart, for the purpose of hearing a certain number of the students give lessons, in the presence of the rector and the other students, on particular and previously prescribed subjects. These subjects are varied in such a manner, that, ere the end of the session, each student has had frequent opportunities, both of himself conducting each educational process, and of seeing it conducted by his fellow students. While these lessons are being given by those appointed to this work, their fellow students are busy observing the manner in which the various processes are conducted, and marking in their note-books any thing that may seem to deserve or call for comment. An opportunity is afterward afforded them of expressing their opinions, in regard to the manner in which the various lessons had been given, and of criticising minutely the whole process gone through by the students, who had been engaged in the business of the class-room. An hour is devoted to this work of public criticism.

The teachers consisted in 1852 of a rector, who has special charge of Biblical instruction, and the theory and practice of teaching, a mathematical tutor, a classical tutor, a teacher of drawing, a lecturer on chemistry, and a music master.

IRELAND.

The checkered experience of Ireland,—its dark and its bright sides,—forms one of the most instructive chapters in the history of popular education. It commences, according to the testimony of the earliest chroniclers, with institutions of learning, not only of earlier origin, but of higher reputation, than any in England or Scotland,—institutions which were resorted to by English youth for instruction, who brought back the use of letters to their ignorant countrymen. According to Bede and William of Malmesbury, this resort commenced even so early as the seventh century, and these youth were not only taught, but maintained without service or reward. The great college of Mayo was called "the Mayo of the Saxons," because it was dedicated to the exclusive use of English students, who at one time amounted to no fewer than 2000. Bayle, on the authority of the historian of the time, pronounces Ireland "the most civilized country in Europe,* the nursery of the sciences" from the eighth to the thirteenth century, and her own writers are proud of pointing to the monastery of Lindisfarne, the college of Lismore, and the forty literary institutions of Borrisdole, as so many illustrative evidences of the early intellectual activity and literary munificence of the nation. But Ireland not only abounded with higher institutions, but there were connected with monasteries and churches, as early as the thirteenth century, teachers expressly set apart "for teaching poor scholars gratis." When the country was overrun by foreign armies, and torn by civil discord, and governed by new ecclesiastical authorities, set up by the conquerors, and not in harmony with the religion of the people, a change certainly passed over the face of things, and there follows a period of darkness and educational destitution, for which we find no relief in turning to the history of English legislation in behalf of Ireland. Indeed there is not a darker page in the whole history of religious intolerance than that which records the action and legislation of England for two centuries, toward this ill-fated country, in this one particular. Even the statute of Henry VIII., which seems to be framed to carry out a system of elementary education already existing before the new ecclesiastical authorities were imposed upon the country, was intended mainly to convert Irishmen into Englishmen. By that

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* These facts are stated on the authority of a speech of Hon. Thomas Wyse, in the House of Commons, in 1835.

6. To admit students at their own expense at any time without examination, except by the rector, upon evidence of respectable character, and for such period as they may find convenient to remain; and to afford them an examination at any time upon their professing the qualification required of the regular students at the termination of their course.

It has been further arranged that, to give a fair opportunity to the students of mastering the required qualification, not only the term of the attendance shall be prolonged, but that more time than heretofore shall be allowed for their own study and instruction. This time is to be taken from their occupation in the practicing schools: where it is not thought necessary they should be employed so much as heretofore, nor quite so much at one period of the course as at another. Accordingly—

7. One hour daily is alloted to the students for teaching in the practicing schools during the first half of the term, and two hours during the second.

At the same time, to maintain the due importance of this practice, and to give the advantage of carrying it on with mutual aid and under mutual observation, it is appointed—

8. That one hour daily shall be devoted to the teaching of a class by one student in presence of all the rest. each having the same office in rotation on successive days; and to hearing the remarks of all upon the manner in which the task has been performed—the rector presiding.

The practicing schools having now less aid than formerly from the services of the students, the want will be supplied by the employment of assistant teachers and apprentice-pupils. At the same time, the attendance will be reduced to an amount more suited to the extent of the accommodation, to 350 in the one institution, and 500 in the other. In short, the Directors have proposed to remodel this department, and have resolved—

9. That the practicing school is to be considered as mainly subservient to the normal school; and to be so formed as to afford to the students opportunities of teaching all parts of an elementary course, and if possible the elements of some branches more advanced.

These arrangements have led to others of less moment, which it is unnecessary here to describe. For one thing, they have occasioned another distribution of time for the occupation of the rectors and the masters; in the settling of which, the general principle has been held in view, that the instruction of the students should be intrusted as much as possible to the rector and the mathematical tutors; while the masters will have charge of the practising schools, and the superintendence of the students when teaching. The regulation on this head is—

10. That the students shall be under the rector four hours daily for instruction in the branches they are required to study, except the mathematical, which will be conducted by the tutor for one hour and a half in the evening; that they shall also, while teaching in the practicing school, be under the occasional supervision of the rector, as well as that of the masters.

After all, it is not by any organization, however carefully or well contrived, that the excellence of a school is to be secured; everything still depending on the genius of the master. And if this be true in regard to common schools, it is still more so in regard to those, which have the exemplification of good methods for their distinguishing object. The Directors have therefore signified that their main reliance is upon the devotedness and skill of the rectors and the masters; whom they have appointed to find for these institutions their proper position in the educational system of the country.

It is not forgotten that a normal school, though perfect in all respects, would not present a model for exact imitation in all cases, and that the application of its methods to the management of common schools must be left, in great part, to the judgment of the masters of the latter. No school, indeed, can be the very pattern for others that exist under different circumstances; and the normal schools are, from their very nature, singular in some of their conditions. It is enough that in them, so far as they are normal, the general principles of method are taught, exemplified, and practiced. To the masters it may be reserved, in mere deference to their self respect to form the plan of their own schools, according to their own knowledge of what the locality requires or permits, and according to the general notions of method which they have received. In short, it is as little desirable as it is practicable, that the normal schools should be altogether such as to afford an absolute rule and exact model for the guidance of the pupil, in the construction and management of his own.

Department for Female Teachers.

Female Schools of Industry.—There is a description of schools which is now rapidly increasing in Scotland, and extending to a lower class of the population than had been wont to have or to consider them as at all needful—the Female Schools of Industry. This is mainly the consequence of elementary education, in general, having taken more of a practical character than formerly; for the male children, somewhat modifying the course of literary instruction, and occasionally attempting a specific preparation for some particular calling or handicraft. The same tendency would have led, of itself, to an instruction of the other sex in the usual arts of domestic industry; but it was aided by this, that, while the period of school attendance was the same for both sexes, it was not requisite for the female to proceed so far in the different literary branches as the other, and so the opportunity arose of attending to those things that form the proper objects of a female school. The promoters of such schools are commonly benevolent ladies, who are no strangers to the cottages of the poor, and who would endeavor by instruction of this sort to improve their domestic condition. It is not unusual, too, for the proprietors of public works, manufacturing or mining, to favor the people in their service with institutions of the kind. The Directors have, in these circumstances, attached to each of their normal seminaries a department for instruction in needlework and knitting, and have opened it freely to female students desirous of undertaking the charge of schools of this description.

This division of the seminary is conducted by the matron of the establishment at Edinburgh, and at Glasgow by a mistress engaged for that single purpose. All the female children above seven years of age at the practising schools are, in both cases, permitted to attend in this department, without additional fee; and nearly all avail themselves of the privilege, each class attending for one hour daily. Their attention is wholly confined to the different sorts of work mentioned, and from the mistresses they receive neither literary nor religious instruction. The female students attend in this division during the whole time it is assembled—that is, for two hours and a half daily—and they are employed mainly in directing the classes, or attending to the directions of the mistress; and are themselves instructed, during a portion of the time, by the mistress at the Glasgow school, in the more difficult kinds of work. In the general model school for the children of both sexes, they are employed four hours daily—half the time occupied, under the master's eye, in teaching the female classes; the other half, in observing how the masters teach. Two hours daily, they are themselves under instruction in reading, religious knowledge, and the elements of grammar and geography.

Female students are admitted under the same regulation which has been formed in regard to those of the other sex who have not the benefit of free maintenance, and who do not engage to remain for any certain period. They are examined upon their knowledge of the elementary branches, before entering, only by the rector, and few have been at any time rejected. The admission fee is £1 for the first four months, 5s for each of the next four months, and no further payment is required for the remainder of the term, the duration of which is optional. Admission is allowed at any time of the year.

No regular examination is undergone by the female students upon leaving the seminary; and far the greater number have left it to enter on the charge of schools to which they had been recommended by the Directors, —not more than four leaving the Edinburgh School, without any certain engagement.

It is not proposed, in the mean time, to place this department of the solely to the separate religious instruction of the Protestant children, the other to the separate religious instruction of the Roman Catholic children. In each case no literary instruction to be given, or interference allowed on the part of the teachers, but the whole of the separate religious instruction to be given under the superintendence of the clergy of the respective communions. That copies of the New Testament, and of such other religious books as may be printed in the manner hereinafter mentioned, should be provided for the use of the children, to be read in schools, at such times of separate instruction only, and under the direction of the attending clergyman:—the established version for the use of the Protestant scholars, and the version published with the approval of the Roman Catholic bishops for the children of their communion."

In 1830, the subject was again considered by a select committee of the House on the state of the poor in Ireland, and the hope expressed that no further time would be lost in giving to Ireland the benefit of the expensive and protracted inquiries of the commissioners of 1805 and 1825, and of the committee of 1828. In September, 1831, Mr. Wyse, author of the able volume entitled "Educational Reform," a member of the House from Ireland, brought in a bill to establish a system of national education for Ireland, but it was not acted upon on account of the adjournment.

In October, 1831, Mr. Stanley, then Secretary for Ireland, announced, in a letter to the Duke of Leinster, Lord-lieutenant of Ireland, the intention of the Government to appoint a Board of Commission of National Education. The Board were soon after appointed, consisting of the Duke of Leinster, the Protestant Archbishop of Dublin, the Catholic Archbishop of Dublin, Rev. Dr. Francis Sadleir, Rt. Hon. A. R. Blake, and R. Holmes, Esq.,—three Protestants, two Catholics, one Presbyterian, and one Unitarian.

The Board of Commissioners have now been in existence about eighteen years. During that time they have encountered bitter opposition from able but ultra zealots in the Protestant and Catholic churches; but, sustained by the Government under the administration of all political parties, they have gone on extending their operations, and accomplishing results which are worthy of the attentive study of every statesman and educator. The fruits of their labors are already visible, but they will be "read of all men" when another generation comes on the stage.

The following are among the results of their measures:

I. The Board have succeeded in establishing a system of National Education, or have made the nearest approach to such a system, which knows no distinction of party or creed in the children to whom it proffers its blessing, and at the same time it guarantees to parents and guardians of all communions, according to the civil-rights with which the laws of the land invest them, the power of determining what religious instruction the children over whom they have authority shall receive, and it prohibits all attempts at enforcing any, either on Protestant or Roman Catholic children, to which their parents or guardians object.

"For nearly the whole of the last century, the Government of Ireland labored to promote Protestant education, and tolerated no other. Large grants of public money were voted for having children educated in the Protestant faith, while it was made a transportable offense in a Roman Catholic (and if the party returned, high treason) to act as a schoolmaster, or assistant to a schoolmaster, or even as a tutor in a private family.* The acts passed for this purpose continued in force from 1709 to 1782. They were then repealed, but Parliament continued to vote money for the support only of schools conducted on principles which were regarded by the great body of the Roman Catholics as exclusively Protestant, until the present system was established."

"The principles on which they were conducted rendered them to a great extent exclusive with respect either to Protestants or to Roman Catholics; Roman Catholic schools being conducted on Roman Catholic principles, were, of course, objectionable generally to Protestants; while Protestant schools, being conducted on Protestant principles, were equally objectionable to Roman Catholics; and being regarded by Roman Catholics as adverse establishments, they tended, when under the patronage of Government, and supported by public money, to excite, in the bulk of the population, feelings of discontent toward the state, and of alienation from it."

"From these defects the National Schools are free. In them the importance of religion is constantly impressed upon the minds of the children, through works calculated to promote good principles, and fill the heart with a love of religion, but which are so compiled as not to clash with the doctrines of any particular class of Christians. The children are thus prepared for those more strict religious exercises which it is the peculiar province of the ministers of religion to superintend or direct, and for which stated times are set apart in each school, so that each class of Christians may thus receive, separately, such religious instruction, and from such persons, as their parents or pastorsmay approve or appoint."

The following Regulations will show the manner in which the Board have aimed to avoid the difficulty of religious instruction in schools composed of different denominations, as well as the prejudices of political parties:

As to Government of Schools with respect to Attendance and Religious Instruction.

"1. The ordinary school business, during which all children, of whatever denomination they may be, are required to attend, is to embrace a specified number of hours each day.

2. Opportunities are to be afforded to the children of each school for receiving such religious instruction as their parents or guardians approve of.

3. The patrons of the several schools have the right of appointing such religious instruction as they may think proper to be given therein, provided that each school be open to children of all communions; that due regard be had to parental right and authority; that, accordingly, no child be *compelled* to receive, or be present at, any religious instruction to which his parents or guardians object; and that the time for giving it be so fixed, that no child shall be thereby, in effect, excluded, directly or indirectly, from the other advantages which the school affords. Subject to this, religious instruction may be given either during the fixed school-hours or otherwise.

4. In schools, toward the building of which the Commissioners have contributed, and which are, therefore, VESTED in trustees for the purposes of national education, such pastors or other persons as shall be approved of by the parents or guardians of the children respectively, shall have access to them *in the school-room*, for the purpose of giving them religious instruction there, at convenient times to be appointed for that purpose, whether those pastors or persons shall have signed the original application or otherwise.

5. In schools NOT VESTED, but which receive aid only by way of salary and books, it is for the patrons to determine whether religious instruction shall be given *in the school-room* or not: but if they do not allow it in the school-room, the children whose parents or guardians so desire, must be allowed to absent themselves from the school, at reasonable times, for the purpose of receiving such instruction ELSEWHERE.

6. The reading of the Scriptures, either in the Protestant authorized, or Douay version, as well as the teaching of catechisms, comes within the rule as to religious instruction.

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* See 8th Anne, c. 3, and 9th William III. c. 1.

7. The rule as to religious instruction applies to public prayer and to all other religious exercises.

8. The Commissioners do not insist on the Scripture lessons being read in any of the national schools, nor do they allow them to be read during the time of secular or literary instruction, in any school attended by children whose parents or guardians object to their being so read. In such case, the Commissioners prohibit the use of them, except at the times of religious instruction, when the persons giving it may use these lessons or not, as they think proper.

9. Whatever arrangement is made in any school for giving religious instruction, must be *publicly notified* in the school-room, in order that those children, and those only, may be present whose parents or guardians allow them.

10. If any other books than the Holy Scriptures, or the *standard* books of the church to which the children using them belong, are employed in communicating religious instruction, the title of each is to be made known to the Commissioners.

11. The use of the books published by the Commissioners is not compulsory; but the titles of all other books which the conductors of schools intend for the ordinary school business, are to be reported to the Commissioners; and none are to be used to which they object; but they prohibit such only as may appear to them to contain matter objectionable in itself, or objectionable for *common* instruction, as peculiarly belonging to some particular religious denomination.

12. A registry is to be kept in each school of the daily attendance of the scholars, and the average attendance, according to the form furnished by the Commissioners."

II. The Board have done much to improve the literary qualifications, and professional knowledge, and skill of teachers, as well as their pecuniary condition, and by a judicious system of classification in salaries, and rewarding cases of extraordinary fidelity and success, to diffuse a spirit of self-education throughout the whole profession. The main defect in the schools of Ireland at the institution of the Board was the incompetency of the teachers. They were in general extremely poor, many of them were very ignorant, and not capable of teaching well even the mere art of reading and writing; and such of them as could do so much, were for the most part utterly incapable of combining instruction in it with such a training of the mind as could produce general information and improvement. One of the first and main objects of the Board was, and continues to be, to furnish an opportunity to deserving persons of the right character, to qualify themselves properly for teaching, and then, by a fair prospect of remuneration and advancement, to devote themselves to the business for life, with a holy national and catholic spirit. A brief notice of the successive steps by which the present system of training and aiding teachers in Ireland was reached, will be appropriate to the design of this work. The earliest indication of any movement in the educational history of Ireland, for the professional training of teachers, was in 1812.

In their thirteenth annual (for 1812) report, the "Commissioners for inquiring into the state of all schools on public or charitable foundations in Ireland," recommend the appointment of a Board of Commissioners as the first step in a system of National Education, with power to establish a number of additional or supplementary schools to those already in existence, and that they be "directed and required to apply themselves immediately to the preparing a sufficient number of well-qualified masters to undertake the conduct of such supplementary schools as they should from time to time proceed to endow."

> "We have already adverted to the deplorable want of such qualification in a great majority of those who now teach in the common schools, and to the pernicious consequences arising from it; their ignorance, we have reason to believe, is not seldom their least disqualification; and the want of proper books often combines with their own opinions and propensities in introducing into their schools such as are of the worst tendency. Even for schools of a superior description, and under better control, there is a general complaint that proper masters can not be procured without much difficulty; and we are persuaded that a more essential service could not be rendered to the State than by carrying into effect a practicable mode of supplying a succession of well-qualified instructors for the children of the lower classes."

The recommendations of the Commission were not acted upon, but annual grants were subsequently made to the Kildare Place School Society, which were applied in establishing two Model Schools in Dublin, in which teachers, intended for their employment, were practised in the mechanism and methods of the particular system of teaching encouraged by that society. The period of instruction, or rather of observation and practice, was brief, and the instruction itself amounted to but little more than a knowledge of the forms and evolutions of the monitorial system of Dr. Bell.

In 1828, R. J. Bryce, Principal of the Belfast Academy, in a pamphlet entitled "*Sketch of a Plan for a System of National Education for Ireland*," pp. 58, presents a very elaborate argument in favor of legislative provision for the education of teachers, as the only sound basis on which a system of public instruction for Ireland could be raised. He sums up his discussion of this branch of the subject in the following manner:

> 1. It is commonly supposed, that a man who understands a subject must be qualified to teach it, and that the only essential attribute of an instructor is to be himself a good scholar.
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> 2. Even those who are aware that there often exists a difference between two teachers as to their power of communicating, conceive this difference to be of much less importance than it really is; and, if ever they take the trouble to think of its cause, they ascribe it to some mechanical *knack*, or some instinctive predisposition.
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> 3. On the contrary, we maintain, that when a man has acquired the fullest and most profound knowledge of a subject, he is not yet half qualified to teach it. He has to learn how to communicate his knowledge, and how to train the young mind to think for itself. And, as it usually happens that children are placed under the inspection of their instructors, who become in a great measure responsible for their morals, every teacher ought also to know how to govern his pupils, and how to form virtuous habits in their minds. *And this skill in communicating knowledge, and in managing the mind, is by far the most important qualification of a teacher.*
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> 5. Every teacher, before entering on the duties of his profession, ought therefore to make himself acquainted with *the Art* * *of Education*; that is, with a system of rules for communicating ideas, and forming habits; and ought to ob-

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* The author thus refers to an article in No. 54 of the North American Review, devoted to Mr. Carter's Essay, which will be found in another part of this work.

"The necessity of some regular provision for instructing teachers in the Art of Teaching, has begun to be felt by all those who take an enlarged and rational view of the subject of education. The first rude essay was made in the model schools of Bell and Lancaster. But reflecting people soon saw the utter inefficiency of this mere mechanical training, which bears the same relation to a true and rational system of professional education for teachers, that the steam-engine of the Marquis of Worcester bears to the steam-engine of Watt Hints to this purpose we have met with in various places; but the first regular publication on the subject that we have heard of, is one by Mr. J. G. Carter, an American writer, with which we are acquainted only through a short article in No. LIV. of the North American Review. * * *

In short we recommend the whole of this article to the careful perusal of the friends of *real education* in Britain and Ireland."

tain such a knowledge of the philosophy of mind, as shall enable him to understand the reasons of those rules, and to apply them with judgment and discretion to the great diversity of dispositions with which he will meet in the course of his professional labors.

6. No man is qualified for the delicate and difficult work of managing the youthful mind, unless his own mental faculties have been sharpened and invigorated by the exercise afforded to them in the course of a good general education.

7. Therefore, a legislature *never can succeed* in establishing a good system of national education, without making some provision for insuring a supply of teachers possessed of the qualifications specified in the two last articles; in order to which, it is indispensably necessary, that Professorships of the Art of Teaching be instituted; and that students, placing themselves under the care of such professors, be required to have previously attained a good general education, and, in particular, a competent knowledge of the philosophy of the human mind.

In 1831, the Board of Commissioners of National Education in Ireland was established. In a letter from Hon. E. G. Stanley, Chief Secretary for Ireland, explaining the powers and objects of the Board, one of the objects is declared to be "the establishing and maintaining a Model School in Dublin, and training teachers for country schools," and it is made a condition on which pecuniary aid shall be granted to any teacher, that "he shall have received previous instruction in a Model School to be established in Ireland."

In April, 1833, two Model Schools, one for males and one for females, were established by the Board, and two courses of instruction provided for teachers in each year, to continue three months each. In 1834, steps were taken to extend both the Model Schools and the Training Establishment, as set forth in their Report for 1835.

"If we are furnished with adequate means by the State, not only for training schoolmasters, but for inducing competent persons to become candidates for teacherships, through a fair prospect of remuneration and advancement, we have no doubt whatever that a new class of schoolmasters may be trained, whose conduct and influence must be highly beneficial in promoting morality, harmony, and good order, in the country parts of Ireland.

It is only through such persons that we can hope to render the National Schools successful in improving the general condition of the people. It is not, however, merely through the schools committed to their charge that the beneficial effects of their influence would be felt. Living in friendly habits with the people; not greatly elevated above them, but so provided for as to be able to maintain a respectable station; trained to good habits; identified in interest with the State, and therefore anxious to promote a spirit of obedience to lawful authority; we are confident that they would prove a body of the utmost value and importance in promoting civilization and peace.

Formerly, nothing was attempted in elementary schools further than to communicate the art of reading, writing, and arithmetic, with some knowledge of grammar, geography, and history. Latterly, teachers have made use of the reading lessons to convey information. Writing has been made subservient to the teaching of spelling, grammar, and composition, and also to the fixing of instruction on the memory. Arithmetic, instead of being taught by unexplained rules, has been made the vehicle for conveying the elements of mathematical knowledge, and training the mind to accuracy of thinking and reasoning. Reading-books have latterly been compiled on these principles, the lessons being so selected as to convey the elements of knowledge on a variety of subjects. And this introduction of intellectual exercises into the teaching of these elementary arts, has been found to produce a reflex effect upon the progress of the pupils in learning the arts themselves. Children are found to be more easily taught to read when, while they are learning to pronounce and combine syllables and words into sentences, they are receiving information. Their writing proceeds better when, while they are learning the mechanical art, they are learning the use of it; and they become better arithmeticians when the principles on which arithmetical operations are founded are gradually developed to them.

To teach upon this principle, it is absolutely necessary that the teacher not only be able to read, and spell, and write well, and be a good practical arithmetician, but that he be a person of general intelligence, having an extensive and accurate knowledge of the subjects treated of in the reading lessons. He must know much more than is expressed in the lessons themselves, or he will be totally unable to explain them familiarly, to correct the mistakes into which his pupils fall, and answer the innumerable questions that will be put to him as soon as the understanding of his pupils begins to be exercised on any subject.

It is therefore necessary that teachers should not merely be able to teach their pupils to read, write, and to conduct schools upon an approved system of discipline, but that they be able to aid in forming the minds of children, and directing their power of reading into a beneficial channel. The power of reading is frequently lost to children, and even becomes a source of corruption and mischief to them, because they have never been directed to the proper use of it; and it is consequently of the highest importance that, while they are taught to read, their thoughts and inclinations should have a beneficial direction given to them. To effect this, manifestly requires a teacher of considerable skill and intelligence.

To secure the services of such persons, it is material that suitable means of instruction should be provided for those who desire to prepare themselves for the office of teaching, and that persons of character and ability should be induced to seek it by the prospect of adequate advantages.

With these views, we propose establishing five Professorships in our training institution. I. Of the art of teaching and conducting schools. The professor of this branch to be the head of the institution. II. Of composition. English literature, history, geography, and political economy. III. Of natural history in all its branches. IV. Of mathematics and mathematical science. V. Of mental philosophy, including the elements of logic and rhetoric. We propose that no person shall be admitted to the training institution, who does not previously undergo a satisfactory examination in an entrance course to be appointed for that purpose; and that each person who may be admitted shall study in it for at least two years before he be declared fit to undertake the charge of a school; that during this time, he shall receive instruction in the different branches of knowledge already specified, and be practised in teaching the model school, under the direction of the professor of teaching.

We are of opinion that, in addition to the general training institution, thirty-two district Model Schools should be established, being a number equal to that of the counties of Ireland; that those Model Schools should be under the direction of teachers chosen for superior attainments, and receiving superior remuneration to those charged with the general or Primary Schools; and that, hereafter, each candidate for admission to the training establishments should undergo a preparatory training in one of them.

We think the salary of the teacher of each Model School should be £100 a year, and that he should have two assistants, having a salary of £50 a year each.

We consider that the teacher of each Primary School should have a certain salary of £25 a year; and that the Commissioners for the time being should be authorized to award annually to each a further sum, not exceeding £5, provided they shall see cause for doing so in the Inspector's report of his general conduct, and the character of the school committed to him. We are also of opinion that each teacher should be furnished with apartments adjoining the school."

By the parliamentary grants of 1835 and 1836, the Board were enabled to proceed with the erection of suitable buildings, and the establishment of the Model School, and Training Department, in Marlborough street, Dublin, which were completed in 1838. To this, in 1839, was added a Model Farm, and School of Agriculture, at Glasnevin, in the neighborhood of Dublin, where the male teachers are lodged, and where they receive a course of instruction in agricultural science and practice.

The training department was at first intended for schoolmasters; but in 1840, through the munificent donation of £1000, by Mrs. Drummond, for this special purpose, and an appropriation of a like amount by the Government, a suitable building was erected in connection with the Model School in Marlborough street, for the training of female teachers. In addition to the ordinary course of instruction in the theory and practice of teaching, schoolmistresses are instructed in plain needlework, in the art of cutting out and making up articles of female wearing apparel, in the arts of domestic economy, such as cottage cookery, washing, ironing, mangling, and other useful branches of household management.

The Commissioners have recently erected in Dublin subsidiary Model Schools, where temporary courses of instruction are given to teachers already connected with National Schools.

In connection with, and in extension of the plan of the central Training Establishment, a system of Primary Model Schools in each district into which the country is divided, is commenced. To several of these schools a residence for the teacher, and land for a Model Farm, are annexed. It is in contemplation to make these District Model Schools the residence of the inspector, and depots for a supply of school books, apparatus, and requisites for the schools of the district. Respecting these Model Schools and Training Department, the Board remark in 1848:

"Our training establishments continue in a prosperous state. We have trained, during the year, and supported at the public expense, 224 national teachers, of whom 137 were males and 87 were females. We also trained 14 teachers not connected with National Schools, and who maintained themselves during their attendance at the Model Schools. Of the 224 teachers of National Schools trained during the year, 9 were of the Established Church, 37 Presbyterians, 3 Dissenters of other denominations, and 175 Roman Catholics. The total number of male and female teachers trained, from the commencement of our proceedings to the 31st of December, 1847, is 2,044. We do not include in this number those teachers who are not connected with National Schools.

With reference to the training of teachers we have to observe, that the experience of each successive year strengthens our conviction of its importance. It is vain to expect that the National Schools, established in all parts of Ireland, will ever be effectively conducted, or the art of communicating knowledge materially improved, until a sufficient number of well-paid masters and mistresses can be supplied, thoroughly qualified, by previous training, to undertake the office of teachers, and feeling a zealous interest in promoting the great objects of their profession.

We have observed, with satisfaction, a marked improvement in the appearance, manners, and attainments of every successive class of teachers, who come up to be trained in our Normal establishment. With reference to the two last classes, we have ascertained that 34 teachers in the last, and 73 in the present, had been originally educated *as pupils* in National Schools. It is from this description of persons, to whom the practice of instructing others has been familiar from their childhood, that we may expect to procure the most intelligent and skillful teachers, to educate the rising generation of Ireland.

It is a gratifying fact, that the good feeling which has always prevailed amongst the teachers of different religious denominations residing together in our training establishment, has suffered no interruption whatever during the last year of extraordinary public excitement.

Whilst every attention has been paid to the improvement of the children in our Model Schools, in the various branches of their secular education, the paramount duty of giving to them, and the teachers in training, religious instruction, has not been neglected by those intrusted with that duty. Upon this subject we deem it expedient to republish the statement made in our Report of last year, which is as follows:—"The arrangements for the separate religious instruction of the children of all persuasions attending these schools, and also of the teachers in training, continue to be carried into effect every Tuesday, under the respective clergymen, with punctuality and satisfaction. Previously to the arrival of the clergymen, each of the teachers in training is employed in giving catechetical and other religious instruction to a small class of children belonging to his own communion. These teachers attend their respective places of worship on Sundays; and every facility is given, both before and after Divine service, as well as at other times, for their spiritual improvement, under the directions of their clergy.' "

III. They have not only increased the number of ordinary elementary schools, but they have established and aided a number of special schools of different grades, pre-eminently calculated to benefit the people of Ireland.

1. *Evening Schools.* The experiment was commenced at Dublin, under the direct inspection of the Board, and was conducted to their satisfaction. They thus refer to the subject in their report for 1847:

"The average attendance of the Evening School on our premises in Marlborough street, Dublin, during the past year, was about 200, composed partly of boys who could not attend school during the day, and partly of adults.

The anxiety evinced by boys, and by young men from eighteen to twenty-five years of age, to participate in the advantages afforded by this school, confirms our opinion that such institutions, if well conducted, will be of incalculable benefit to the working classes; and that, if established in large towns, or in populous localities adjoining them, they will form an important step in the education of the artisan between the common National School and the Mechanics' Institution. After the toils of the day, the humble laborer and the tradesman, will find in Evening Schools the means of literary and moral improvement, and a protection against temptations to which, at their age, this class of persons are peculiarly exposed.

We received during the year numerous applications for aid to Evening Schools, the majority of which we rejected, being of opinion that our grants for this purpose should as yet be confined to large towns, in which trade and manufactures are extensively carried on, and where alone we at present possess the means of inspection. We made grants to twelve Evening Schools in the course of the year. It is probable that the number of applications for assistance will gradually increase. Should this be the case, we shall take the necessary steps to ascertain that the Evening Schools are properly conducted, and that the system of education carried on in them, is adapted to the varied occupations of the artisans, mechanics, and others, who are desirous of obtaining the special instruction which their several trades and avocations require."

2. *Workhouse Schools.* The children of families provided for in workhouses, under the Poor Law Commissioners in Ireland, are gathered into schools under the care of the Board. In 1847 there were 104 of these schools, for which the Board propose the following vigorous measures of improvement:

"1. That the minimum rate of salary to male teachers, in addition to apartments and rations, shall be £30 a year; and to female teachers £25, exclusive of any gratuity from the Commissioners of National Education.

2. That no teacher shall be required to undertake the instruction of more than from 80 to 100 children; and that assistant teachers be provided, at lower salaries, when the daily average attendance considerably exceeds 100.

3. That in female schools, when the number of pupils considerably exceeds 100, a work-mistress be engaged, in addition to the principal teacher, to instruct the children in the various branches of plain needlework, and in the art of cutting out, and making up articles of female wearing apparel.

4. That the whole time of the teachers shall be devoted to the literary, moral,

and industrial education of the children, and to the superintendence of them, during the hours of recreation and manual labor.

5. That Evening Schools be opened for the instruction of the adult paupers, and of such of the pupils of the day schools, as it may be practicable and desirable to have in attendance for two hours each evening. The Evening Schools to be conducted by the teachers of the day schools.

6. That the number of children to be accommodated in each school-room be so regulated, as that a space of at least six square feet be allowed for each child.

7. That every Workhouse School, in connection with the Commissioners of National Education, be supplied with suitable furniture and apparatus, according to models to be furnished by them.

8. That each Workhouse School, on its coming into connection with the Commissioners of National Education, be gratuitously supplied with a complete outfit of books, maps, stationery, &c., and that a further supply be granted afterward, at stated periods.

9. That two of the local Guardians be requested to visit the schools weekly, and report once a month to the Board of Guardians. This duty might be rendered less onerous, if undertaken by the members of the Board in rotation.

10. That in order to provide industrial training for pauper-children, a sufficient quantity of land be annexed to each Workhouse, to be cultivated as farms and gardens by the pupils of the schools; and that, for this purpose, Agriculturists be appointed, to the most deserving of whom the Commissioners of National Education will award gratuities not exceeding £15 each.

11. That it is advisable, under particular circumstances, to consolidate two or three Unions, and to establish a Central Agricultural School, to be attended by the children of each."

3. *Industrial Schools.* The Board have extended aid to a class of schools which gather in children who can not ordinarily be induced to attend the regular day schools, and who need special care and training. The results are shown in the following extracts from the Reports of the Inspectors appointed by the Board:

> " *Claddah Fishing School, County Galway.*—The attendance has been, sometimes, over 500, and the average for six months has been nearly 400. I regret that the apparatus requisite for giving an extensive course of instruction on practice of navigation has not been provided, and that there are no funds available for this purpose.
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> Since the opening of the female schools, 36 girls have been employed in the industrial room at spinning and net-making; and in providing materials and making trifling donations to children, £66 1*s.* 6*d.* have been nearly expended. The schools are in a much better state than I expected them to be, the merit of which must be attributed to the praiseworthy assiduity and attention of the manager, and rev. gentlemen of the Caddah convent."

4. *Agricultural Schools.* In accordance with the wise policy which has characterized all the measures of the Board, of trying all new experiments under their own inspection, and of exhibiting a working plan, the Board first established a Model Farm and Agricultural School at Glasnevin, in connection with the Training Establishment in Dublin, and afterward attached an ordinary National School to the establishment at Glasnevin, to ascertain to what extent industrial training suited to the wants and circumstances of the locality, could be united with literary instruction. As to the results the Board remark:

> "It has proved that literary instruction and practical instruction in gardening, together with some knowledge of agriculture, may be successfully communicated to boys in a National School by one master, provided he be zealous and skillful. No difficulty has been experienced in inducing a limited number of the advanced boys to work in the garden two hours each day, after the ordinary school business. The scholars composing the Industrial class are paid sixpence a week each for their labor; and the produce of the garden is valued to

the Commissioners, at the current market prices, for the use of the teachers and domestics, in the male and female training establishments: an account is kept by the teacher of the receipts as well as of the expenses of cultivation. Our masters in training have thus an opportunity of seeing a model of what a small village school ought to be in a rural district, and how far it is practicable, under one and the same master, to unite literary and industrial education. The boys employed in cultivating the garden attend daily, together with the teachers in training, a course of lectures on the elementary principles of agriculture, as well as of gardening. The practical information they thus acquire, and the habits of industry to which they become accustomed, can not fail to be highly serviceable to them in after life. It will be a subject for future consideration, whether this arrangement for the regulation of the labor of the garden might not be so altered, as to place under each of the pupils a small allotment, which he shall be required to cultivate, being permitted to receive a portion of the profit derived from his industry.

We conceive that no greater boon could be conferred upon Ireland than the establishment of similar schools in every country parish. They would not only be conducive to the improvement of the laboring classes themselves, but would tend materially to remove the prejudices existing amongst many respectable farmers, against the mere literary education of the peasantry. Schools of this description would prove, by the combination of intellectual with industrial training, that not only are the understandings of the young developed by this species of education, but their bodies formed and disciplined to habits of useful and skillful labor."

After training up teachers competent to conduct Agricultural Schools, and showing them a working model of such a school, and also of an ordinary school in which agriculture was introduced as a study and an exercise, the Board proceeded to establish Model Agricultural Schools, publish Agricultural Class Books, and promote the study of agriculture in all the schools under their care, in appropriate situations. In their Report for 1847 they remark:

"We had in operation on the 31st of December, 1847, seven Model Agricultural Schools; and we have made building grants of £200 each to ten others of this class, some of which are in progress. In addition to those schools, there are twelve other Agricultural Schools to which small portions of land are attached; and to the masters of these we pay an additional salary of £5 per annum for their agricultural services; and other emoluments are secured to them by the local managers. Since the commencement of the present year, several applications have been received for aid both to Model and ordinary Agricultural Schools; so that we hope to announce, in our next Report, the establishment of a greater number.

We have published an Agricultural Class Book for the use of the advanced pupils attending the National Schools, which it is intended shall be read by all the pupils capable of understanding its contents. The object of this little work is to explain, in as simple language as possible, the best mode of managing a small farm and kitchen garden. Appended to it are introductory exercises, in which the scholars should be examined by the teachers. In order to render the lessons attractive, they have been thrown into the form of a narrative, calculated to arrest the attention of young readers. This reading book is not, however, designed as an agricultural manual for our teachers. We propose to supply this want by the publication of a series of agricultural works, rising from the simplest elementary book, to scientific teaching of a high character, and comprehending various branches of practical knowledge, bearing upon the subject of agricultural instruction. We distributed last year, amongst our teachers, a variety of cheap and useful tracts, relating to the best modes of cultivating the soil, and providing against the dearth of food; and we are now engaged in circulating, amongst our masters, several other elementary treatises on husbandry, recently published under the direction of the Royal Agricultural Society, and containing much valuable information.

In a limited number of *large* National Schools, situated in rural districts, we intend to introduce agricultural instruction, subject to the following conditions

If the manager of a National School of this description, or any respectable person of whom he approves, shall annex to it a farm of eight or ten acres, and erect the necessary farm buildings thereon, without requiring any grant from us toward building, repairs, the purchase of stock, or the payment of rent, we propose in such cases to pay the Agricultural teacher a salary not exceeding £30 per annum.

We shall leave the appointment of the teacher and the superintendence of the farm to the proprietor of the land, or to the manager of the school, should he also be the owner of the land. All we shall require will be, that the teacher be competent, in the opinion of our Agricultural Inspector, to manage the farm according to the most improved system; and that he shall instruct daily in the theory and practice of agriculture, a sufficient number of advanced boys, who shall be in attendance at the adjoining National School. Our Agricultural Inspector will be required to report half-yearly whether the farm has been conducted to his satisfaction, and whether the regulations which we shall prescribe for the agricultural instruction of the pupils have been strictly adhered to.

The plan we have now explained can not be effectually worked by our ordinary inspectors. It will be necessary, therefore, that our Agricultural Schools, including our Model Farm at Glasnevin, should be under the superintendence of a person, practically conversant with agricultural operations, with plans of farm buildings, and the best method of keeping farming accounts; and who shall be competent to examine and report on the system of agricultural instruction adopted in schools of this description. We have, accordingly, determined upon appointing an officer to discharge those important duties. With his assistance, we shall in future be able to make full and satisfactory reports to Parliament of the agricultural branch of our system.

In order to supply the demand for persons qualified to conduct farms and Agricultural Schools, we have resolved upon increasing, from twelve to twenty-four, the number of agricultural pupils, who compose the free class, at our Model Farm, Glasnevin; also, upon increasing to the same extent the number of agricultural teachers at our training establishment there. We shall thus have a total of forty-eight pupils and teachers, who will be all under instruction at the same time.

Our agricultural pupils are selected from the best qualified of our pupils attending our several Agricultural Schools throughout Ireland; and our agricultural teachers who come up to be trained, are chosen from among the masters of ordinary National Schools. This arrangement is calculated to accelerate the diffusion of agricultural instruction throughout our schools, and, generally, amongst our teachers.

Though convinced that, by means of these and other arrangements, we may become instrumental in promoting the cause of Agricultural Education in Ireland, we feel bound to state that we can accomplish little, unless our efforts be cordially sustained by the co-operation of the landed proprietors of the country. The Agricultural Schools must, in almost all cases, be created by them, and conducted under their directions. It will be necessary for them to expend much money, and bestow constant care upon them. The salaries, training, and inspection, furnished by the state, are indispensable; but they will be unavailing if local expenditure and exertions do not supply the groundwork upon which the assistance of Government is to be brought into operation."

5. *School Libraries.* From the following extracts, it will be seen that the Board are about to adopt the educational policy of New York and Massachusetts in extending the means of self-education out of school hours, and beyond the period of school attendance.

"The want of School Libraries for the use of the children attending our schools has been long felt. To compile a series of instructive and entertaining works adapted to this purpose, would occupy a very considerable time, and require the assistance of many individuals well qualified for compiling books suited to the minds of children. Under these circumstances, we have adopted the necessary steps for the selection of a sufficient number from those already published. Care will be taken that they are unobjectionable in all respects, to the members of every religious denomination. We shall buy them from the publishers at the lowest cost, and sell them at reduced prices to such of the managers of our schools as may approve of their being lent to their pupils. We shall also frame regulations for managing the School Libraries when formed, which will insure a regular delivery and return of the books."

IV. The Board have aided in the erection and fitting up of more than 3000 school-houses in different parts of Ireland, by contributing an amount, not more in any case than two-thirds of the sum actually expended. The expenditure in Ireland for school-houses, in connection with the Board, up to 1850, has been estimated at $2,500,000. The Commissioners must be satisfied as to the site, size, furniture, material, and workmanlike manner of the work done, before the payment of any grant.

V. The Board have succeeded in publishing and introducing a valuable series of text books, maps and school requisites, prepared with great care, and furnished for a first supply, and at the end of every four years *gratuitously* to each school, and at other times *below cost*. Great pains have been taken to exclude from all books published or sanctioned by them, every thing of a sectarian or party character, the upper and the nether millstone between which Ireland has been for two centuries crushed. The publication of this "Irish National Series of School Books." has had the effect already to reduce the price of all school books in England and Scotland, and to lead to the revision of most of the standing text books, in order to compete with this new competitor in the market. In their Fourteenth Report (for 1847) the Board remark:

> "We have the gratification to state that the demand for our school-books, in England and Scotland, is progressively increasing. Many of our colonies, too, have been supplied during the year with large quantities; and in some of them a system of public instruction for the poor, similar in its general character to that of the national system in Ireland, as being equally adapted to a population of a mixed character as to their religious persuasions, is likely to be established. We have sent books and requisites to Australia, British Guiana, Canada, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Gibraltar, and Malta. A complete series of our National school-books was also sent to Lord Seaton, the Governor of Corfu; and it is not improbable that they will be translated, at no distant period, into the Greek language, for the use of children attending schools in the Ionian Islands."

VI. The Board have subjected their schools to a system of thorough, periodical and intelligent inspection, by which all abuses and deficiencies are detected, and at once corrected or supplied, and a stimulus of the most powerful character is brought to bear on all of the teachers in any way aided by the Commissioners.

Besides three head inspectors residing at Dublin, for local duties and special business abroad, there are thirty-four district inspectors, who devote their whole time to the services of the Board, under the following regulations:

> "1. The commissioners do not take the control or regulation of any school, except their own model schools, directly into their own hands, but leave all schools aided by them under the authority of the local conductors. The inspectors, therefore, are not to give direct orders, as on the part of the Board, respecting any necessary regulations, but to point out such regulations to the conductors of the school, that *they* may give the requisite orders.
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> 2. The commissioners require that every National School be inspected by the *inspector of the district*, at least three times in each year.

3. The district inspector, on each inspection, is to communicate with the patron or correspondent, for the purpose of affording information concerning the general state of the school, and pointing out such violations of rule, or defects, if any, as he may have observed; and he is to make such suggestions as he may deem necessary.

4. He is to examine the visitors' book, or daily report book, and to transmit to the commissioners copies of any observations made therein which he may consider to be of importance.

5. He is not to make any observation in the book except the date of his visit, the time occupied in the inspection of the school, showing the precise time at which it commenced and the precise time at which it terminated; and also the number of scholars present.

6. Upon ordinary occasions, he is not to give any intimation of his intended visit; but during the middle term of the year, from the 1st of May to the 31st of August, when the inspection is to be public, he is to make such previous arrangements with the local managers, as will facilitate the attendance of the parents of the children, and other persons interested in the welfare of the schools.

7. He is to report to the commissioners the result of each visit, and to use every means to obtain accurate information as to the discipline, management, and methods of instruction pursued in the school.

8. He is to examine all the classes in succession, in their different branches of study, so as to enable him to ascertain the degree and efficiency of the instruction imparted.

9. He is to examine the class rolls, register, and daily report book; and to report with accuracy what is the actual number of children receiving instruction at the school, and what is the daily average attendance.

10. He is to receive a monthly report from the teacher of each school, and also to make one quarterly himself to the commissioners, in addition to his ordinary report upon the school after each visit.

11. He is also to supply the commissioners with such local information as they may from time to time require from him, and to act as their agent in all matters in which they may employ him; but he is not invested with authority to decide upon any question affecting a National School, or the general business of the commissioners, without their direction.

12. When applications for aid are referred to the district inspector, he is to communicate with the applicant so as to insure an interview, and also with the clergymen of the different denominations in the neighborhood, with the view of ascertaining their sentiments on the case, and whether they have any, and what, objections thereto. He is also to communicate personally, if necessary, with any other individuals in the neighborhood.

13. The district inspector is to avoid all discussions of a religious or political nature; he is to exhibit a courteous and conciliatory demeanor toward all persons with whom he is to communicate, and to pursue such a line of conduct as will tend to uphold the just influence and authority both of managers and teachers.

VII. They have, by their wise and successful measures, induced the British Parliament to increase their annual appropriation in aid of National Education in Ireland. The sum appropriated in 1831 was £4,328; in 1835, £35,000; in 1840, £50,000; and in 1847, £90,000. The whole sum expended by the Board in 1847 was £102,318. To the amount received from the Treasury was added the sum of £8,500, realized from the sale of books, published by the Board. The sum appropriated by the Board is made the condition and inducement of a still larger sum being raised by local and parental effort. The following account of the expenditures of the Board for 1847, will indicate the objects which they aimed to accomplish:

THE DISCHARGE.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
NORMAL ESTABLISHMENT:						
Salaries and Wages,	861	0	0			
General Expenditure,	23	9	10			
MALE TRAINING DEPARTMENT, GLASNEVIN:						
Salaries and Wages,	196	2	4			
Maintenance and Traveling,	1,218	15	5			
General Expenditure,	312	16	8			
MALE TRAINING DEPARTMENT, GREAT GEORGE'S-STREET:						
Salaries and Wages,	119	7	8			
Maintenance and Traveling,	928	12	9			
General Expenditure,	248	7	5			
MALE TEMPORARY DEPARTMENT, 27, MARLBOROUGH-STREET,	307	16	0			
FEMALE TRAINING DEPARTMENT;						
Salaries and Wages,	183	0	0			
Maintenance and Traveling,	1,130	0	8			
General Expenditure,	306	1	8			
MODEL SCHOOL DEPARTMENT,	858	19	10			
EVENING SCHOOL, MARLBOROUGH-STREET,	101	9	10			
MODEL FARM DEPARTMENT, including the Board and Lodging of Agricultural Pupils and Teachers, Rent, Permanent Improvements, Salaries, Wages, &c.,	921	19	8			
Purchase of Farm Stock and Agricultural Implements, from Mr. Skilling, in November,	916	2	7			
GLASNEVIN NATIONAL SCHOOL:—Completion of Building, Fitting-up, &c.	744	18	9			
GLASNEVIN EVENING SCHOOL,	21	16	6			
				9,333	17	7
BUILDING, FITTING-UP, REPAIRING, &c., SCHOOL-HOUSES,	3,956	7	10			
Do. Do. AGRICULTURAL, INDUSTRIAL AND OTHER SCHOOLS,	399	8	9			
				4,355	16	7
SALARIES TO TEACHERS AND MONITORS,	—			50,209	6	1
DISTRICT MODEL SCHOOLS:—						
Purchase, Rent, toward Building, Furnishing, &c.,	520	0	0			
Salaries and Allowances to teachers,						
General Expenditure,	232	13	0			
				752	13	0
INSPECTION,	—			9,322	1	7
BOOK DEPARTMENT:—						
Her Majesty's Stationery Office, for one year ending 31st March, 1847, for Paper, Printing, Binding of National School Books, including Slates, Pencils, and other School Requisites,	14,064	8	5			
For Books and Requisites purchased from Publishers, and sold to the National Schools at reduced prices, Salaries, &c.,	3,339	4	9			
				17,403	13	2
OFFICIAL ESTABLISHMENT IN MARLBOROUGH-STREET,	—			4,961	3	8
REPAIRS AND WORKS AT MARLBOROUGH-STREET, including Purchase of ground in Rere, for New Male Training Establishment,	1,100	0	0			
Building and Fitting-up New Book Stores,	1,500	0	0			
Sundry Repairs and Alterations in various Departments,	1,412	4	2			
				4,012	4	2
MISCELLANEOUS:—						
Rates, Taxes, and Insurance,	301	11	6			
Coals, Candles, Gas, &c.,	435	9	0			
Postage,	380	5	0			
Stamps,	136	15	0			
Incidents, { Law Costs, . . . £424 13 2 Sundries, . . . 165 2 3 }	589	15	5			
				1,843	15	11
Gratuities to Monitors, from Model School Fund,				124	2	8
JAMES CLARIDGE, *Accomptant.*				102,318	14	5

VIII. The success which has attended the efforts of the Board even under the extraordinary and peculiarly difficult circumstances of Ireland, has had a powerful influence on the cause of educational improvement in England, and other parts of the British Empire.

Much has been done within five years past, and more is now doing in the Province of Upper Canada, by the Government, to establish a system of common schools than in any one of the American States, not excepting even New York, or Massachusetts. The action of the enlightened and indefatigable superintendent of schools, the Rev. Egerton Ryerson, D. D., has been guided more by the experience of the National Board of Ireland than that of any other State.

The following extracts from the Eighteenth Report of the Commissioners of National Education for Ireland, exhibit the practical operations of the system at the close of the year 1852:

> On the 31st December, 1850, we had 4,547 schools in operation, which were attended by 511,239 children. At the close of the year 1851, the number of schools in operation was 4,704, and of pupils on the rolls 520,401, showing an increase in the schools in operation of 157, and an increase in the attendance for the year 1851, as compared with the year 1850, of 9,162 children. The total attendance in 1851 of 520,401 children, in the 1,704 schools in operation, gives an average on the rolls of 100½ to each school.
>
> According to returns prepared at our request by the managers of the national schools, we have ascertained that of 5,822 male and female teachers, assistants, monitors, &c., in the service of our board on the 31st of March, 1852, there were—members of the Established Church, 360; Presbyterians, 760; other Protestant Dissenters, 49—total Protestants of all denominations, 1,169; Roman Catholics, 4.653. The number of schools in operation on the 1st of November, 1852, was 4,795. Of these, 4,434 were under 1,853 separate managers, and 175 under joint management. There were 141 connected with workhouses or jails, and 45 of which the commissioners are the patrons, making in the whole 4,795 schools. Of 434 schools, 1,247 were under the superintendence of 710 managers of the Protestant, and 3,187 under the 1,143 managers of the Roman Catholic communion. The number of managers, members of the Established Church, was 296, clerical 67, lay 229, of schools 554; Presbyterians 398, clerical 247, lay 151, schools 670; Protestant Dissenters 16, clerical 4, lay 12, schools 23. Total Protestant managers of all persuasions 710, and of schools under them 1,247. Roman Catholics 1,143, clerical 957, lay 186, schools 3,187.

These returns show that the various religious denominations are represented in the management, instruction, and attendance of the schools, about in proportion to their population. Still it is to be regretted that this system is assailed with great bitterness by ultra Protestants and ultra Catholics, each claiming that the schools are administered to the special benefit of the other side. The Commissioners remark:

> We beg to assure your Excellency, that we have no other object in bringing under your notice these statements than to prove that the benefits derived from the system of national education have not been confined almost entirely to the Roman Catholic population (as has been incorrectly stated in various publications) but that it has been found acceptable to a large proportion of the Protestant community. Twenty years have elapsed since the introduction of the system of national education into Ireland. After a careful review of its progress, and of the difficulties which it has had to encounter, we are convinced that it has taken deep root in the affections of the people, and that no other plan for the instruction of the poor could have been devised, in the peculiar circumstances of this country, which would have conferred such inestimable blessings on the great majority of the population. Every passing year strengthens our conviction that the intellectual and moral elevation of the humbler classes in Ireland will be effectually promoted by a firm adherence to the fundamental principles of the system, and by liberal grants from Parliament towards its support.

TRAINING DEPARTMENT AND MODEL SCHOOLS

OF THE

COMMISSIONERS OF NATIONAL EDUCATION FOR IRELAND.

The Commissioners for National Education in Ireland, provided in 1839, in Marlborough street, Dublin, a Normal Establishment for training teachers, and educating persons who are intended to undertake the charge of schools.

The establishment consists of spacious accommodations for class and lecture-rooms for the Normal pupils, school-rooms for three model schools in Marlborough street for the instruction of 800 pupils, and a boarding-house and model farm at Glasnevin, in the neighborhood of Dublin.

The following extracts from the Regulations of the Board regarding the appointment and classification of teachers, the course of instruction, &c., will give a good idea of the establishment, and at the same time suggest many useful hints to the friends of educational improvement at home.

ADMISSION OF PUPILS INTO THE MODEL SCHOOLS.

Parents are requested to observe the following rules:

1. Parents wishing their children to be admitted into these schools must apply to the head teacher of the respective schools, on any morning of the week, except Monday, from half-past nine till ten o'clock. The names, residences, &c. of the children will then be registered in a book kept for the purpose, and as vacancies occur, they will be sent for in the strict order of their respective applications; *except in the case of pupils who have been dismissed for irregularity of attendance, who are not to be received again till after all the other applicants shall have been admitted.*

2. The doors are closed every morning precisely at ten o'clock, and the children are dismissed at three, except on Saturdays, when the schools close at twelve o'clock.

An opportunity for separate religious instruction is afforded every Tuesday, from ten till half-past twelve o'clock.

4. If a child be absent on any day, he must bring a ticket to school, as a token that the absence was unavoidable, and by the consent of the parents. Three *Absence* tickets will be given to the parents on application to the heads of the respective schools.

5. If any child be frequently absent, or absent five days successively, and the cause be not made known to the teachers before the expiration of the five days, such child will be discharged from the school. If the parents wish the child to be re-admitted, they must get the name entered in the application book as at first; *and wait till after all the children who have applied for the first time shall have been admitted.*

6. The payment is a penny per week, to be paid the first day in each week the child attends; and should any child be unavoidably absent, the penny must nevertheless be paid weekly so long as the parent wishes the name of the child to remain on the roll.

GENERAL LESSONS TO BE INCULCATED IN THE MODEL SCHOOLS AND TRAINING DEPARTMENT, AND IN ALL SCHOOLS OF THE BOARD.

Christians should endeavor, as the Apostle Paul commands them, to "live peaceably with all men," (Rom. ch. xii. v. 18,) even with those of a different religious persuasion.

Our Savior, Christ, commanded his disciples to "love one another;" he taught them to love even their enemies, to bless those that cursed them, and to pray for those who persecuted them. He himself prayed for his murderers.

Many men hold erroneous doctrines, but we ought not to hate or persecute them. We ought to seek for the truth, and to hold fast what we are convinced is the truth; but not to treat harshly those who are in error. Jesus Christ did not intend his religion to be forced on men by violent means He would not allow his disciples to fight for him.

If any person treats us unkindly. we must not do the same to them; for Christ and his apostles have taught us not to return evil for evil. If we would obey Christ, we must do to others, not as they do to us, but as we should wish them to do to us.

Quarreling with our neighbors, and abusing them, is not the way to convince them that we are in the right, and they in the wrong. It is more likely to convince them that we have not a Christian spirit.

We ought to show ourselves followers of Christ, "who, when he was reviled, reviled not again," (1 Pet. ch. ii. v. 23,) by behaving gently and kindly to every one.

TEN PRACTICAL RULES FOR THE TEACHERS OF NATIONAL SCHOOLS.

I. To keep at least one copy of the GENERAL LESSON, or a Lesson of similar import, suspended conspicuously in the school-room, and to inculcate the principles contained in it on the minds of their pupils.

II. To exclude from the school, except at the hours set apart for religious instruction, all catechisms and books inculcating peculiar religious opinions.

III. To avoid fairs, markets, and meetings—but above all, POLITICAL meetings, of every kind; and to do nothing either in or out of school which might have a tendency to confine it to any one denomination of children.

IV. To keep the register, report book, and class lists, accurately and neatly, and according to the precise forms prescribed by the Board.

V. To classify the children according to the national school books; to study those books themselves; and to teach according to the improved methods, as pointed out in their several prefaces.

VI. To observe themselves, and to impress upon the minds of their pupils, the great rule of regularity and order—A TIME AND A PLACE FOR EVERY THING, AND EVERY THING IN ITS PROPER TIME AND PLACE.

VII. To promote, both by precept and example, CLEANLINESS, NEATNESS, and DECENCY. To effect this, the teachers should set an example of cleanliness and neatness in their own persons, and in the state and general appearance of their schools. They should also satisfy themselves, by personal inspection every morning, that the children have had their hands and faces washed, their hair combed, and clothes cleaned, and, when necessary, mended. The school apartments, too, should be swept and dusted every evening; and white-washed at least once a year.

VIII. To pay the strictest attention to the morals and general conduct of their pupils; and to omit no opportunity of inculcating the principles of TRUTH and HONESTY; the duties of respect to superiors, and obedience to all persons placed in authority over them.

IX. To evince a regard for the improvement and general welfare of their pupils; to treat them with kindness combined with firmness; and to aim at governing them by their affections and reason, rather than by harshness and severity.

X. To cultivate kindly and affectionate feelings among their pupils; to discountenance quarreling, cruelty to animals, and every approach to vice.

ADMISSION TO TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

1. The appointment of teachers rests with the Local Patrons and Committees of Schools. But the Commissioners are to be satisfied of the fitness of each, both as to character and general qualification. He should be a person of Christian sentiment, of calm temper, and discretion; he should be imbued with a spirit of peace, of obedience to the law, and of loyalty to his sovereign; he should not only possess the art of communicating knowledge, but be capable of moulding the mind of youth, and of giving to the power which education

confers a useful direction. These are the qualities for which patrons of schools, when making choice of teachers, should anxiously look. They are those which the Commissioners are anxious to find, to encourage, and to reward.

2. The Commissioners have provided a Normal Establishment in Marlborough street, Dublin, for training teachers and educating persons who are intended to undertake the charge of schools; and they do not sanction the appointment of a teacher to any school, unless he shall have been previously trained at the Normal Establishment; or shall have been pronounced duly qualified by the Superintendent of the district in which the school is situated.

3. Teachers selected by the Commissioners for admission to the Normal Establishment must produce a certificate of good character from the officiating clergyman of the communion to which they belong. They are to be boarded and lodged at an establishment provided by the Board for the purpose at Glasnevin, in the immediate neighborhood of Dublin, to which an agricultural department is attached. They are to receive religious instructions from their respective pastors, who attend on Thursdays at the Normal Establishment; and on Sundays they are required to attend their respective places of worship; and a vigilant superintendence is at all times exercised over their moral conduct.

4. They are to attend upon five days in the week at the training and model schools, where lectures are delivered on different branches of knowledge, and where they are practised in the art of teaching. They are to receive instruction at Glasnevin, particularly in agriculture, daily, and they attend on Saturdays at the farm, which is conducted under the direction of the Commissioners, and where they see theory reduced to practice. They undergo a final examination at the close of their course, and each will then receive a certificate according to his deserts. The course of training at present occupies a period of four months and a half, and for a considerable time previous to their being summoned, they are required to prepare themselves for the course.

5. Teachers of schools unconnected with the National Board, if properly recommended, are also admitted to attend the Normal Establishment, as day pupils, without any charge for tuition; but such persons maintain themselves at their own expense.

DAILY OCCUPATION IN THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

The Lectures of the **Professors** commence in the first week of February and August in each year, and continue for between four and five months.

DAILY OCCUPATION OF THE TEACHERS' TIME AND SUBJECTS TAUGHT.

Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays.

10 to 11	Mr. Sullivan—Principles of Teaching; Systems of Popular Education and Lectures on School-keeping.
11 to 12	Mr. M'Gauley—Arithmetic, Elements of Algebra, Geometry, and Mechanics.
12 to 12½	Hullah's System of Singing, under Mr. Gaskin, in the Gallery.
12½ to 1	Relaxation in Play-ground, under Mr. Rintoul.
1 to 1½	Mr. Sullivan—Recapitulation and Examination.
1½ to 2	Mr. M'Gauley—Steam Engine, Elements of Chemistry, and subjects connected with them.
2 to 3	Practice of Teaching in Model School under Mr. Rintoul, Mr. Keenan, and superintendence of the Professors.*
3 to 4	Lecture on Agriculture from Mr. Donaghy.

Tuesdays.

10 to 11	Hullah's System of Singing under Mr. Gaskin, in the Gallery.
11 to 12½	Religious Instruction, under their respective Clergymen.
12½ to 1	Relaxation in Play-ground, under Mr. Rintoul.
1 to 2	Mr. Sullivan—Books of the Board, Grammar, Easy Lessons on Reasoning, and Elements of Political Economy; taking Archbishop Whateley's "Easy Lessons on Money Matters" as the basis; and touching only on those topics which are *plain, practical*, and *corrective of popular prejudices*.
2 to 3	Mr. M'Gauley—Same as early Lecture on Mondays.
3 to 4	Lecture on Agriculture from Mr. Donaghy.

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* During these hours a portion of the teachers in rotation attend the Infant Model School under Mr. Young.

Thursdays.

10 to 11 Mr. SULLIVAN—Geography, and Elements of Astronomy.
11 to 12 Mr. M'GAULEY—Same subjects as early Lecture on preceding days.
12 to 12½ HULLAH'S System of Singing, under Mr. GASKIN.
12½ to 1 Relaxation in Play-ground, under Mr. RINTOUL.
1 to 2 Mr. RINTOUL—Preparation for Teaching in the Model School.
2 to 3 Practice of Teaching in Model School, under Mr. RINTOUL, Mr. KEENAN, and superintendence of the Professors.*
3 to 4 Lecture on Agriculture from Mr. DONAGHY.

Saturdays.

10 to 12 Mr. DONAGHY—At the farm for practical Instruction in Agriculture.
12 to 2 Mr. GILSON—Surveying.
2 to 3 Mr. CAMPBELL—Horticulture.

SPECIAL CLASS.

⁂ The *Junior* Division attend with the General or Ordinary Class, as above.

The Senior Divison, or those who have attended two courses of Lectures, are employed in the Model School, under Mr KEENAN, except at the periods in which the General Class learn the practice of Teaching under Mr. RINTOUL. At these periods the Special Class receive extra and special instruction from one of the Professors. For the present, Mr. M'GAULEY will take them on *Thursdays*, at the hour in which the men will be in the Model Schools for the practice of Teaching ; and also, from 2 till half-past 2 o'clock on *Mondays*, *Wednesdays* and *Fridays* : Mr. RINTOUL will also give them special instruction on *Tuesdays*, from 10 till 11 o'clock ; and Mr. SULLIVAN will mark out a course of reading for them, and examine them from half-past nine to 10 o'clock on *Tuesdays*, on the books recommended ; he will also give them exercises to write on the subject of Education and School-keeping.

FEMALE CLASS OF TEACHERS IN TRAINING.

Mondays, Wednesdays, Thursdays and Fridays.

9¾ to 10¾ Mr. RINTOUL—Writing, Arithmetic, Elocution, and Writing and Spelling by Dictation.
11 to 12 Mr. SULLIVAN—Geography, Grammar, Principles of Teaching, and Lectures on School-keeping.†
12 to 12½ Relaxation in Play-ground.
12½ to 3 Female Model and Infant Schools.
3 to 4 Miss BYRNE—For Singing.

Tuesdays.

9½ to 10½ Mr. RINTOUL—Same subjects as on Mondays.
10 to 12½ Separate Religious Instruction.
12½ to 1 Relaxation in Play-ground.
1 to 2 Mr. M'GAULEY—Arithmetic.
2 to 3 Mr. RINTOUL—Practice of Teaching.
3 to 4 Miss BYRNE—For Singing.

Saturdays.

10 to 12 Female Model School.
12 to 12½ Miss BYRNE—For Singing.

CLASSIFICATION AND SALARIES OF TEACHERS.

Teachers of national schools are divided into three classes, to which the following salaries are attached:

First Class. First Division: males, £30; females, £24. Second Division: males, £25; females, £20. Third Division: males, £22; females £18 per annum.

Second Class. First Division: males, £20; females, £15. Second Division: males, £18; females, £14 per annum.

Third Class. First Division: males, £16; females, £13. Second Division: males, £14; females, £12 per annum.

Probationary Teachers. Males, £10; females, £9 per annum.

Assistant Teachers. Males, £10; females, £9 per annum.

Mistresses to teach Needle Work. £6 per annum.

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* In order that the teachers in training may see the Model School in all its phases, we change the hours of our Lectures every Thursday, so as to enable them to attend the first Thursday in the course from 10 to 11 o'clock, the second from 11 to 12, and so on.

† Except from 11 till 12 o'clock on Thursdays, which they spend in the Female Model School.

Masters of agricultural model schools, with farms of eight or ten acres annexed, who are competent to conduct both the literary and agricultural departments, are to receive £10 per annum, in addition to the salary of the class in which they may be placed.

Masters of national schools, with a small portion of land annexed, consisting of from two to three acres, for the purpose of affording agricultural instruction, will receive £5 per annum, in addition to the salary of their class, provided they are competent to conduct both the literary and agricultural departments, and that the commissioners shall have previously approved of agriculture being taught in the school.

The commissioners will not grant salary to an assistant teacher, or to a teacher of needlework, unless they are satisfied that the appointment is necessary; and such teachers, even though they may be classed, will not be paid any higher rate of salary than the amount awarded to them as assistant teachers, or teachers of needlework, until promoted to the rank of principal teacher, with the sanction of the commissioners.

The commissioners have determined upon a course of study for each class, in which the teachers are to be examined as a test of their fitness for promotion; but their general conduct, the condition of their respective schools, their method of conducting them, and the daily average attendance of pupils, will also be taken into consideration.

Every national teacher will be furnished with a copy of the program of the course of study above referred to.

The commissioners require that a further income to the teachers be secured, either by local subscriptions or school fees. This rule will be strictly enforced.

SALARIES PAID TO MONITORS.

Males and Females.—For the first year, £4; for the second year, £5; for the third year, £6; for the fourth year, £7.

For the present the number of paid monitors is limited to four males and two females in each district, selected from among the best pupils in the national schools, and appointed upon the recommendation of the district inspectors.

When the district model schools are established, candidates for the office of paid monitor must undergo a public examination by the inspectors, in a prescribed course, to be held in those schools.

GENERAL CONDITIONS FOR PROMOTIONS.

All newly appointed teachers, who have not previously conducted national schools, are considered as *Probationers*, and must remain as such for at least *one year*, at the expiration of which time, they will be eligible for classification, and may be promoted, even before being trained, to any class *except the first:* if promoted, they will receive the *full amount of salary to which they may become entitled, from the commencement of the second year of their service under the Board.*

All teachers must remain at least one year in a lower division of any class, before they are eligible for promotion to a higher division of the same; and they must remain two years in a lower class before they are eligible for promotion to a higher class.

This regulation does not apply to probationary teachers, nor to teachers who may be promoted on the recommendation of the professors at the termination of the course of training.

None but teachers trained at the Normal School of the commissioners are eligible for promotion to *any division of the first class*, and only upon the recommendation of the professors, or of a board of inspectors.

Examinations are to be held, at specified times, by the inspectors, with the view of promoting meritorious teachers, or of depressing others who may have conducted themselves improperly, or in whose schools the attendance has considerably decreased.

No teacher will be admitted to examination with a view to promotion, on whose school a decidedly unfavorable report has been made by the district inspector within the previous year.

Teachers will not be eligible for promotion unless, in addition to satisfactory answering in the course prescribed for the class to which they aspire, it appears from the reports of their respective district inspectors that their schools are properly organized and well conducted; that adequate exertions have been made by them to keep up a sufficient average attendance; that their junior classes are carefully taught, and that a fair proportion of the pupils of the higher classes, besides being proficients in the ordinary branches of reading, spelling and writing, are possessed of a respectable amount of knowledge in, at least, grammar, geography, and arithmetic. In female schools it will be further requisite that instruction in plain needlework, including sewing, knitting, and cutting-out, be given to all girls capable of receiving it, and that they exhibit a due proficiency in this department.

It must also appear from the reports of their inspectors, that their school accounts have been regularly and correctly kept, that their schools and school premises have been preserved with neatness and order, and that cleanliness in person and habits has been enforced on the children attending them.

None can be appointed as assistant teachers whose qualifications are not equal to those required of probationers.

Satisfactory certificates of character and conduct will be required of all candidates.

SCALE OF PREMIUMS TO THE MASTERS AND MISTRESSES OF NATIONAL SCHOOLS.

The sum of £10 to be allocated to each of the school districts, to be divided into six premiums—one of £3; one of £2; two of £1 10s. each, £3; two of £1 each, £2.—£10.

These premiums are to be awarded annually on the recommendation of the district inspector, and paid at the end of the year to the masters and mistresses who are most distinguished by the order, neatness, and cleanliness observable in themselves, their pupils, and in the school-houses.

No distinction to be made between vested and non-vested schools.

No teacher eligible for these premiums for more than two years in succession.

These premiums will be awarded without reference to the class in which the teachers may be ranked; but none will be deemed eligible to receive such premiums against whom there may be any well-founded charge of neglect in the performance of their duties, of impropriety in their conduct, or whose schools are not conducted in a satisfactory manner.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

IN

IRELAND.

ARRANGEMENTS are now made for a systematic course of instruction in the science and practice of agriculture in Ireland, in connection with the Queen's Colleges, and the Commissioners of National Education.

PROFESSORSHIP OF AGRICULTURE IN THE QUEEN'S COLLEGES.

In each of the Queen's Colleges there is a professorship of agriculture, with a model and experimental farm, and botanical garden, all the helps and appliances of agricultural books and periodicals, and a laboratory for experiments in the scientific principles connected with this department.

The colleges are situated in different sections of Ireland, viz.: at Galway, Cork, and Belfast, and the course of agricultural instruction in each, will be modified to some extent by the peculiarities of the country in which it is located.

The course of study and of lectures extends through two years, when the student receives a "Diploma of Agriculture." The courses of lectures embrace, in the first year, natural philosophy, chemistry, natural history, and the theory of agriculture; in the second year, geology and mineralogy, history and diseases of farm animals, land surveying and the practice of agriculture.

On the model and experimental farm, and in the botanical gardens adjoining the colleges, and in connection with them, the students have an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the best kind of farm animals and machines, and with the manual and mechanical operations of practical agriculture, horticulture and arboriculture, being accompanied in their visits to see such objects and processes, by their instructors, as well as in various excursions of natural history.

Students who attend the agricultural lectures may be matriculated or non-matriculated. The former pay $33 each year to the college; the latter pay $9 for attendance upon any separate course of lectures. They also pay $3 annually for access to the library, which is well furnished with agricultural publications, to which the matriculated students have access without charge.

In each of these colleges are four scholarships of Agriculture, of the value of $97, two for each year. Candidates for these undergo certain examinations. For the first year, they must have passed the matriculation examination, viz.: in English grammar and composition, the first four rules of arithmetic, vulgar and decimal fractions, involution and evolution, proportion and simple interest, mensuration, book-keeping, and outlines of modern geography. For the second year, the examinations are in the general principles of heat, chemistry, mechanics and hydrostatics, elements of botany and zoology, theory and composition of manures, and feeding of farm animals.

Candidates for the diplomas of agriculture pay to the college the first year, $33; for the second, $31. If they have scholarships, they pay only $20 the first year, and $18 the second.

AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT OF THE SYSTEM OF NATIONAL EDUCATION.

The operations of the Commissioners of National Education embrace:

1. Model Farm at Glasnevin, near Dublin.
2. Model Agricultural Schools under the exclusive management of the Commissioners.
3. Model Agricultural Schools under the management of Local Patrons.
4. Agricultural Departments in Workhouse Schools.

The working operations of several schools, and the results of the experimental model farming in connection with each, are fully set forth each year in the report of the Inspector—who in 1852 was Dr. Kirkpatrick. From his report for 1851, it appears that, besides the Model Farm and Agricultural School at Glasnevin, there were 28 Model Agricultural Schools and 37 ordinary Agricultural Schools. In these schools there were 96 boarders, and 173 pupils working on the farms, and paid out of the produce of the farms—most of whom were destined to be teachers in National Schools. The Inspector in his Report remarks:

> The reports of the conductors of the several Agricultural Schools in which Industrial Classes have as yet been established are most favorable as to the utility and efficiency of such classes, and generally speak of the pupils composing them as being the most regular in their attendance at school, and the most proficient in literary and agricultural knowledge. The establishment of an Industrial Class of six pupils in every Agricultural School would be of great advantage in carrying out the different operations of the farm, and in diffusing more effectually the benefits of the agricultural department of the school. The labor of such a class for two hours each day on the farm, in performing the light work, (which can be more conveniently and economically done by boys than by men,) would be worth at least £8 per annum. Now assuming that of the 4,704 National Schools at present in operation 2,000 are favorably circumstanced for having small school farms attached to them, which might be principally cultivated by such classes, a sum of £16,000 would be annually added to the national wealth. This would be an immediate and tangible benefit, but who can estimate the value and importance of the thrifty and industrious habits of which the foundation might thus be laid among the future producers of the wealth of the country. A boy might thus, without any impediment to his literary education, earn nearly 30*s.* a year, and if his parents could afford to invest this in the purchase of a pig, a lamb, or a calf, which might be reared for his benefit, he paying for its maintenance with his future earnings—selling it at the proper time—investing the proceeds in additional young stock, and thus from year to year gradually adding to his little property, what a valuable step this would be towards improving the provident habits of the humbler classes! What an improvement on the old and still too general practice of allowing young lads, whose laboring in this way would be so useful, to spend the greater part of their time before and after school hours in idleness or mischief.
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> I think from the experience we now have had of the working of the system of agricultural education in this country, the practicability of combining agricultural with literary instruction in all schools favorably circumstanced for practically ex-

emplifying the agricultural principles to be inculcated, can not be any longer questioned. From all the information I could acquire on this subject in the course of my personal inspection, and from the statements of the local parties connected with the different Agricultural Schools, I find that in almost every instance the agricultural instruction does not in any way retard the progress of the pupils in literary studies. I have heretofore had occasion to refer to the case of the Larne School, as affording a gratifying instance of the truth of this statement; and I have again the satisfaction of stating that its pupils have a second time given public, and I trust *satisfactory* proof that at the same time they have acquired a thorough and useful knowledge of agricultural principles, they have made as much proficiency in literary instruction as if it formed the sole subject of their studies. Three of them were examined at Edinburgh, in September last, before the education committee of the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, and several noblemen and gentlemen interested in the agricultural education of the youth of that country, on a similar plan to that carried out in connection with the National Schools here; and from the public and private accounts I have received of their answering, I think they amply fulfilled the object of their mission by affording a convincing proof of the practicability of combining agricultural and literary education in common schools, where the Teachers are properly qualified to communicate such, and to superintend the practical operations of a small farm.

I beg to direct attention to a portion of the speech delivered by Sir John M'Neill, G.C.B., who presided as chairman at a public breakfast given to Mr. Donaghy by the friends of agricultural education, at the conclusion of his lectures on that subject. After referring to the necessity for and advantages of agricultural education, and the most suitable means of having it generally carried out, he thus proceeds :—"I have had occasion to visit the school conducted by your guest, Mr. Donaghy, at Glasnevin, in the vicinity of Dublin, and from the results of the experiments made in that institution, I should look with the greatest hope and confidence to the success of any scheme that might conciliate public support to enable it to be permanent. On looking to the schemes of improvement which are started every day, I think I see a disposition on the part of those who move them to look for too speedy results of their own labor. Now I am perfectly satisfied that if we are to move in this matter with the prospect of conferring benefit on the country, we must be contented to sow that others may reap. All education, mind you, is founded on that principle. He who establishes a school for the education of youth does not expect to see all those children, men, and women grown up. He does not expect to live to see the fruits of the labor that he has bestowed on them—or in many cases at least he can not expect it. He is satisfied to instill into the minds of youth those principles which are to guide their conduct in the manhood he will never see. If, therefore, we are to move in this matter let us not deceive ourselves. We, at least such of us as have the snows of many winters on our heads, are not to suppose that we are to see the result of our labors. We must be contented, if we are to do good, to drop into the ground an acorn, which may, at a distant period, produce a tree, under whose boughs many may hereafter find shelter and shade. If in this spirit you are prepared to move in this matter—if, without attempting to hold out the prospects of immediate results, you are prepared to establish a national institution, which shall grow with the growth, and strengthen with the strength, of the nation, I am prepared to go along with you in the amount of any influence or means which I possess. But if you are merely going to move for the sake of producing *immediate* effects—if you expect to see the result of your own labors—if you are not prepared to take any measures of which you may not see the result, I look for no advantage from your labors." Dr. Anderson, the distinguished chemist to the highland and agricultural society of Scotland, being called upon to express his views on the matter, said—"He had felt, ever since he had come into connection with the agriculturists of Scotland, that it was essential they should have some means of establishing a thorough and effectual agricultural education. He had thought of various plans, and had seen the great difficulty of making a commencement; but the plan they were now met to-day to discuss was a most important and practical one; as he believed the parish schools did afford them the means of carrying on this branch of education to a considerable extent. He confessed that, for his own part, he would like to see the system carried out even more extensively than had been suggested at this meeting; and that a thorough system should be introduced over the whole of Scotland. They could not have a better educated class, as regarded general knowledge, than the agricultural classes of Scotland: but, as yet, they had no means of supplying them with that *professional* education which the present state of agriculture, and the rapid advances now making in it, rendered it necessary to possess." These remarks clearly and happily express the views that must be entertained by intelligent practical minds as to the beneficial results of a system of education such as that administered by the agricultural schools, and are admirably calculated to meet the objections of those, who, because they can not see immediate and general improvement resulting from the operations of the agricultural schools, pronounce the system a failure. Improvement can not in this instance tread on the heels of education—the latter sows the seed of which the former will in due time be the fruit; and as in ordinary cultivation some crops take only a short time to arrive at maturity, while others require a long period to attain perfection, so from the cultivation of the minds of our young farmers and laborers many beneficial results are *already* observable, but the general harvest of improvement will be slow in coming round.

The conduct and efficiency of the agricultural teachers during the past year have been in general most exemplary and satisfactory. I am enabled to speak thus favorably, not only from my own experience acquired at my different visits, but from the accounts I have received from proprietors and others who feel an interest in, and have closely watched their proceedings. They do not confine their labors to the superintendence of their schools and farms, but not unfrequently discharge the duties of "Practical Instructors" in their respective localities.

The results, in the shape of pecuniary profit, realized at the different school farms, as shown in the Appendix to this Report, differ materially; but it must not be supposed that such results are an index to the efficiency or non-efficiency of the teachers. Various circumstances besides the industry and ability of the agriculturist, will combine to affect the result of his labors, and unless where the cases are equal in respect to advantages and disadvantages, the pecuniary result of the year's operations does not afford a sure criterion whereby to judge of the merits or demerits of the system by which they were produced, although they can be useful in many other ways, such as showing the results obtained in different localities, and under different systems of management, and by comparing the results of any year with those of the preceding, the progress or retrogression in *individual* cases may be ascertained. It may be observed, and perhaps unfavorably commented on by those unacquainted with all the circumstances, that in some of the schools, especially those under the immediate management of the Commissioners, there has been a *loss* in the agricultural department; but it must be borne in mind that most of these schools are but very recently established—that in almost every case the farms connected with them were in a most wretchedly exhausted condition—that most of the energies of the agriculturists are directed to the effecting of the preliminary and indispensable improvements, and to bringing them under suitable and regular rotations of cropping; and until these preliminary measures are completed, and the farms in working order, it would be unreasonable to expect profitable pecuniary results.

The following extract, taken from a recently published and highly interesting pamphlet, bears so strikingly and prominently on this peculiar point, that I can not refrain from giving it insertion here:—"When any one acquainted with the multifarious risks which surround the farming business, takes a lease of land, he does not look for profit for several years, unless it happens to have been previously put in good condition; on the contrary, he calculates on having a heavy expenditure and little income for a considerable time. When a farm has for a number of years been starved and badly managed, to look at it, the theorist might conclude that it would not take much to put it in the same state as those richly cultivated fields adjoining. But than this there is not a more common mistake; and when landlords are of opinion that farmers can give as much rent for a wasted farm, as they may seem inclined to offer for another, which perchance is in better condition, they are not looking at the matter in a proper light. In many cases, to put the individual who has become tenant of a 'run-out' farm in an equal position with his more fortunate neighbor, who has got land exactly of a similar nature, at a rent nothing higher, but which happens to be less severely scourged, several hundred pounds would be required; for, in improving an impoverished farm, large sums of money will be expended without making any striking change in its appearance, or without immediately yielding a profit to the improver.—*Morton's Rich Farming.*

MODEL FARM AND AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL AT GLASNEVIN.

The Agricultural Department of the Commissioners of National Education at Glasnevin, consists of a Model Farm of 128 acres, with appropriate buildings, a Model Kitchen Garden, and Nursery of fruit and forest trees, shrubs, &c., and an Industrial School. The pupils are selected by the Commissioners from the most talented and deserving young men in the various agricultural schools in different parts of Ireland; and the number for the present is limited to fifty.

The success of this great establishment in gradually diffusing over Ireland a knowledge of better methods of farming and gardening, is fully attested in the extracts which follow.

President Hitchcock in a "Report concerning an Agricultural School" to the Legislature of Massachusetts, remarks:

"This institution was established in 1838, and its grand object is to train up teachers for other schools, several hundreds of whom have already been sent out, and are spreading the knowledge here gained in other parts of Ireland. The present number of pupils is about fifty; but buildings are now in course of erection for one hundred. The pupils receive literary as well as agricultural instruction. The principal lectures are on practical as well as theoretic agriculture. The mornings as well as the evenings are devoted to study, but a large part of the day to labor. Most of the pupils, I should think, are above twenty years of age. It was vacation when I visited, yet some thirty or forty had remained to work on the farm, and I very thankfully accepted an invitation to listen to an examination of the young men in the studies they had been taught. More than twenty cheerfully came in from the field, and without changing their dress, passed a very creditable examination upon the various principles of practical and theoretical agriculture, in connection with its associated sciences. I am sure that they can not carry abroad such principles as they here presented without doing immense benefit to impoverished Ireland.

On the farm the principles taught in the school are practically illustrated. I walked over the fields, and have never, in any country, seen crops as fine, taken as a whole, of wheat, oats, beans, flax, and potatoes. The oats would probably yield eighty bushels to the acre, and the potatoes bid fair to produce seven hundred bushels, the disease having not then shown itself. The pupils have access to a good agricultural library, but I saw no collections in Natural History, nor in any other department, indeed. The place, however, being only three miles from Dublin, the pupils can resort thither for instruction in Natural History, and the inspection of specimens. There is a museum of economic geology there, which will, ere long, afford great facilities to pupils. If they can succeed in extending the skill and productiveness exhibited in this Model Farm, throughout Ireland, I am confident we should hear no more of her population as starving."

Mr. Donaghy, in his Report on the Glasnevin Farm in 1852, makes the following judicious remarks on the educational workings of this establishment.

So far as the numbers in attendance at the establishment may be considered as indicative of its continued prosperity, nothing, under the circumstances, can be more satisfactory; and coupling with this the very favorable testimony left on record regarding it by the numerous visitors who have inspected its operations throughout the year, we have every reason to be satisfied that its usefulness is becoming gradually more developed, and its agency, in effecting an improvement in our present agricultural management, better appreciated by all who take an interest in the real welfare of the country.

Viewing the establishment, then, as an engine whereby extensive knowledge on improved agricultural practice is organized and disseminated throughout the different parts of the country—more particularly amongst those classes of the community whose circumstances debar them from acquiring such information otherwise—it recommends itself to the countenance and support of every true friend of Ireland, as an institution by means of which the amelioration of the different classes of the people, who come within the sphere of its influence, can be, so far as other external circumstances permit, ultimately effected. This it is capable of accomplishing, and that, too, "without money and without price," on the part, at least, of the recipients of its benefits.

I need scarcely say that it would afford me, as I doubt not it would you, much gratification were I able to state that the Glasnevin Model Farm establishment is a self-supporting institution. But this it neither is, nor can be, under existing circumstances. And it is very problematical, indeed, whether or not, if it were such, it would be capable of accomplishing even a tithe of the good which it is at present effecting. Common sense will point out to any man fit to exercise a sound judgment, that no agricultural educational establishment in the world, having a *limited* quantity of land attached to it, would be able, from the sale of its produce, to board, lodge, educate, wash for, pay the travelling expenses of, afford 1*s*. 6*d*. per week, to an *indefinite* number of *free* pupils, and, at the same time, return a profit to the manager. In any self-supporting institution, a certain ratio must exist between the number of pupils boarded *free* of expense, and the extent and quality of the land cultivated; else no result in the shape of a *money* profit can be realized, as may easily be perceived by conceiving that there may be a larger number of pupils in attendance—as in our own case—than the entire produce of the farm would be capable of maintaining. But though a *money* profit is desirable, if it can at all be produced, I would ask, is a *money* profit, in reference to the affairs of an institution such as this, the proper test whereby to judge of its utility and efficiency? Most decidedly it is not. *The amount of good* effected by the operations of a public institution, constitutes, for the most part, the sole and only element of profit derivable from the expenditure attendant upon its management. Does the state expect a direct *money* profit from the expenditure of the funds set apart for the support of the Queen's Colleges? No; but from the application of those funds a more important result is expected—the education of all who can conscientiously avail themselves of the privileges thus afforded to them. Further, do the Commissioners of education contemplate that a *money* profit should emanate from the outlay consequent upon the efficient working of the Marlborough street schools? No; the object in view in this, as in the other case, is identically the same—the conferring of a great boon upon the lower ranks of the people, in the form of a good, useful, and liberal education. Well, in what does the Glasnevin Model Farm establishment differ from the cases just adduced? Is it not also an educational establishment, giving valuable gratuitous instruction to the sons of the small farmers, not only in the science and practice of husbandry, but also in general literary knowledge—matters of vital importance to the country, and of course attended with extra expense as compared with an ordinary agricultural establishment? The objects in view in each case, therefore, are precisely similar—the affording of extensive gratuitous advantages to promote the educational and social interests of Ireland out of the funds of the State—objects which the Glasnevin Model Farm establishment have promoted, is promoting, and, I should hope, will promote. A *money* profit therefore, is not the proper criterion whereby to judge of its usefulness. If so, such should also be the case in reference to the others.

But whilst the Glasnevin Model Farm establishment, with its 128 acres attached, is admirably calculated, from its proximity to the city of Dublin, for affording to the Commissioners of education the greatest possible facility for carrying out their views extensively, as regards the dissemination of agricultural knowledge, the high rent which they have been obliged to pay for the land (£5 per statute acre for one part of it, and 4 guineas per acre for the other,) in consequence, amongst other matters, of the enjoyment of this advantage; the outlay for permanent improvements required to be effected; the high charge for implements and repairs in the locality; the amount of outlay for toll, cess, and other taxes; and the cost attendant upon the purchase and keeping in proper repair the different sets of implements for so many pupils, place it almost beyond the power of human exertion, under existing prices, to show a favorable balance sheet.

But is the fact to be altogether overlooked in forming an estimate of the results of the working of this establishment, that the Commissioners of education are able from their arrangements, as regards the locality of the farm, not only to train a class of agricultural pupils—at present 50—immediately upon it, but also to take advantage of the services of their agriculturist in delivering two courses of agricultural lectures in the year to about 200 of their schoolmasters when they are in training at their Model Schools in Dublin? And still further to enhance the value of the information which these men thus receive in the lecture-room, they are called upon by the board to visit the Model Farm once in the week, where an explanation is given to them of the courses of cropping followed, the mode of performing the different farming operations, and, in short, of the entire management pursued. Could these advantages be obtained if their principal agricultural department was situated at a considerable distance from their literary training department, without incurring much more trouble and expenditure than at present? The truth is, by this very arrangement—the proximity of the agricultural establishment to the literary training department—the Commissioners of education have been able to take the lead of all the educational institutions in Great Britain as regards the dissemination of agricultural information. Why has Scotland been heretofore unable to carry out agricultural education in connection with her present existing school system, notwithstanding an expressed desire on the part of some of her most enlightened men to effect this object? Simply, because she has no central agricultural training department in connection with one or other of her normal seminaries, at which her teachers could acquire, in addition to their other branches of education, a knowledge of agricultural science and practice. I would respectfully submit, therefore, that in forming an estimate of our transactions, throughout the year, the real and substantial advantages derived by the country from the working of the establishment should receive due consideration.

The following notice of the Model Farm at Glasnevin, where the Normal pupils are required to take practical lessons in agriculture, is taken from Colman's "*European Agriculture and Rural Economy.*"

"It is considered (by the Commissioners of National Education) and with good reason, that the great want, among the people, is a want of knowledge in applying and using the means of subsistence within their reach; that there is no indisposition on their part to labor; that there is as yet an ample extent of uncultivated land capable of being redeemed and rendered productive; and that a principal source of the wretchedness, and want, and starvation, which prevail in some parts of this country, often to a fearful extent, is attributable to the gross ignorance of the laboring classes of the best modes of agriculture and of rural economy. With this conviction upon their minds, the commissioners have determined to connect with all their rural schools a course of teaching in scientific and practical agriculture, communicating a knowledge of the simple elements of agricultural chemistry; of the best modes and operations of husbandry which have been adopted in any country; of the nature, and character, and uses, of the vegetables and plants necessary or useful to man or beast; of the improved kinds of live stock, and of the construction and use of the most improved and most approved farming implements and machinery. With these views, it is their intention to train their schoolmasters, and to send out such men as are apt and qualified to teach these most useful branches. For this purpose the government have established this model farm, which was begun in 1838, and which has already, in a greater or less measure, qualified and sent out seven hundred teachers. To my mind it seems destined to confer the most important benefits upon Ireland, and I may add upon the world; for so it happens under the benignant arrangements of the Divine Providence, the benefits of every good measure or effort for the improvement of mankind proceed, by a sort of reduplication, to an unlimited extent; these teachers shall instruct their pupils, and these pupils become in their turn the teachers of others; and the good seed, thus sown and widely scattered, go on yielding its constantly-increasing products, to an extent which no human imagination can measure. Three thousand schoolmasters are at this moment demanded for Ireland, and the government are determined to supply them. Happy is it for a country, and honorable to human nature, when, instead of schemes of avarice, and dreams of ambition, and visions of conquest, at the dreadful expense of the comfort, and liberty, and lives, of the powerless and unprotected, the attention of those who hold the destinies of their fellow-beings in their hands is turned to their improvement, their elevation, their comfort, and their substantial welfare.

The Model Farm and Agricultural School is at a place called Glasnevin, about three miles from Dublin, on a good soil. The situation is elevated and salubrious, embracing a wide extent of prospect of sea and land, of plain and mountain, of city and country, combining the busy haunts of men, and the highest improvements of art and science, with what is most picturesque and charming in rural scenery, presenting itself in its bold mountains and deep glens, in its beautiful plantations, its cultivated fields, and its wide and glittering expanse of ocean. The scenery in the neighborhood of Dublin, with its fertile valleys, and the mountains of Wicklow, of singularly grand and beautiful formation, bounding the prospect for a considerable extent, is among the richest which the eye can take in; and at the going down of the sun in a fine summer evening, when the long ridge of the mountains seemed bordered with a fringe of golden fire, it carried my imagination back, with an emotion which those only who feel it can understand, to the most beautiful and picturesque parts of Vermont, in the neighborhood of Lake Champlain. I have a strong conviction of the powerful and beneficial influence of fine natural scenery, where there is a due measure of the endowment of ideality, upon the intellectual and moral character; and I would, if possible, surround a place of education with those objects in nature best suited to elevate and enlarge the mind, and stir the soul of man from its lowest depths. It is at the shrine of nature, in the temple pillared by the lofty mountains, and whose glowing arches are resplendent with inextinguishable fires, that the human heart is most profoundly impressed with the unutterable grandeur of the great object of worship. It is in fields radiant with their golden harvests, and every where offering, in their rich fruits and products, an unstinted compensation to human toil, and the most liberal provisions for human subsistence and comfort, and in pastures and groves animated with the expressive tokens of enjoyment, and vocal with the grateful hymns of ecstacy, among the animal creation, that man gathers up those evidences of the faithful, unceasing, and unbounded goodness of the Divine Providence, which most deeply touch, and often overwhelm the heart. The Model Farm and School, at Glasnevin, has connected with it fifty-two English acres of land, the whole of which, with the exception of an acre occupied by the farm buildings, is under cultivation, and a perfect system of rotation of crops. The master of the school pays for this land a rent of five pounds per acre, and taxes and expenses carry the rent to eight pounds per acre. Twelve poor boys, or lads, live constantly with him, for whose education and board, besides their labor, he receives eight shillings sterling per week. They work, as well as I could understand, about six hours a day, and devote the rest of the time to study, or learning. The course of studies is not extensive, but embraces the most common and useful branches of education, such as arithmetic, geography, natural philosophy, and agriculture, in all its scientific and practical details. They have an agricultural examination, or lecture, every day. I had the gratification of listening to an examination of fourteen of these young men, brought out of the field from their labor; and cheerfully admit that it was eminently successful, and in the highest degree creditable both to master and pupil. Besides these young men, who live on the farm, the young men in Dublin, at the Normal School, who are preparing themselves for teachers of the national schools, are required to attend at the farm and assist in its labors a portion of the time, that they may become thoroughly acquainted with scientific and practical agriculture in all its branches, and be able to teach it; the government being determined that it shall form an indispensable part of the school instruction throughout the island. The great objects, then, of the establishment, are to qualify these young men for teachers by a thorough and practical education in the science, so far as it has reached that character, and in the most improved methods and operations of agriculture. Besides this, it is intended to furnish an opportunity to the sons of men of wealth, who may be placed here as pupils, to acquire a practical knowledge of, and a familiar insight into, all the details of farming. This must prove of the highest importance to them in the management of their own estates."

LIST OF LECTURES AT GLASNEVIN.

1. The rudiments of agricultural chemistry, geology, mineralogy, botany, and vegetable physiology, so far as they have a practical application to agriculture.
2. The nature and improvement of soils.
3. The nature, properties, and application of the several manures.
4. The effects of heat, light, and water on soils, manures, animal and vegetable life.
5. The nature, situation, and properties of farms in general.
6. The proper division of farms, with the crops suitable, according to soil and situation.
7. The situation and construction of farm buildings.
8. Rotations of crops, fencing and draining, according to the most approved principles.
9. The scientific principles of ploughing, and the general construction and use of farm implements.
10. The cultivation of green and grain crops, proper quantity of seeds, and best mode of culture.
11. Haymaking and harvesting.
12. Animal physiology and veterinary practice, and general management of horses.
13. Cattle, their several breeds, management, diseases, and modes of cure; also of sheep and swine.
14. Horse-feeding and fattening of cattle, with the improved modes of dairy management.
15. Practical gardening, under the direction of Mr. Campbell.

The results of this course of training with the teachers, are best seen in the following notice of the National School, at Larne,—an ordinary school in which agricultural chemistry and practical agriculture are provided for in the course of study.

"This is not, properly speaking, an agricultural school, but a national school, where the common branches of education are taught; and there is connected with it a department or class of agricultural study, and a small piece of land, which the boys cultivate, and on which, in the way of experiment, the principles of agriculture, and its general practice, are, within a very limited extent, illustrated and tested. The examination was eminently successful, and creditable alike to the teacher and the pupils. It was from this establishment that a detachment of five pupils was sent for examination to the great meeting of the Agricultural Society of Scotland the last autumn, where their attainments created a great sensation, and produced an impression, on the subject of the importance of agricultural education, which is likely to lead to the adoption of some universal system on the subject.

I shall transcribe the account given of the occasion: 'Five boys from the school at Larne were introduced to the meeting, headed by their teacher. They seemed to belong to the better class of peasantry, being clad in homely garbs; and they appeared to be from twelve to fifteen years of age. They were examined, in the first instance, by the inspector of schools, in grammar, geography, and arithmetic; and scarcely a single question did they fail to answer correctly. They were then examined, by an agricultural professor, in the scientific branches, and by two practical farmers in the practical departments of agriculture. Their acquaintance with these was alike delightful and astonishing. They detailed the chemical constitution of the soil and the effect of manures, the land best fitted for green crops, the different kinds of grain, the dairy, and the system of rotation of crops. Many of these answers required considerable exercise of reflection; and as previous concert between themselves and the gentlemen who examined them was out of the question, their acquirements seemed to take the meeting by surprise; at the same time they afforded it the utmost satisfaction, as evincing how much could be done by a proper system of training.'

I confess the establishment at Larne afforded me, in this respect, very high gratification. The agricultural studies are not made compulsory, but voluntary; and one hour per day is devoted to agricultural labor. The Board of Education in Ireland have now under their control three thousand teachers; and it is proposed, wherever it may be deemed useful, to make agriculture a standard branch of common school education. They already have seven agricultural training establishments; and it is in contemplation to have twenty-five, with which it is proposed shall be connected small model farms, so that every where, besides furnishing this most valuable instruction to the pupils of the schools, the farmers in the vicinity may be excited and instructed to improve their cultivation. Thus diffusive is the nature of all beneficence. A good deed, like a stone thrown into the water, is sure to agitate the whole mass. Its strongest effects will be felt where the blow is given; but the concentric circles are seen extending themselves on every side, and reach much farther than the eye can follow them. In the moral as well as physical world, the condition of mutual attraction and dependence is universal and indissoluble. We have reason to hope that no good seed is ever sown in vain, but will sooner or later germinate and yield its proper fruits.

These establishments do certainly the highest honor and credit to the intelligence and philanthropy of Ireland, and their beneficent effects must presently be seen in alleviating the indescribable amount of wretchedness under which this beautiful country and fine-spirited people have been so long crushed to the earth —a wretchedness which, to be understood, must be seen."

President Hitchcock, of Amherst in his Report to the Legislature of Massachusetts, in 1851, on Agricultural Schools, thus notices his visit to the National Agricultural School at Larne.

The farm consists of only seven acres. Yet in 1848, the head master, Mr. M'Donnell, maintained on this small plot of ground, in the very best condition, three milch cows, two calves, four pigs, and one donkey, and raised besides 32½ cwt. of wheat, 28 cwt. of oats, and 24 cwt. of potatoes. The crops growing this year, appeared unusually fine.

The in-door pupils pay $54 a year, including instruction and board, or if upon scholarships, only $22. The out-door pupils pay for instruction, $17 annually. The boarders work on the farm from 6 to 8, and from 10 to 12 A. M., and from 4 to 6 P. M. From 12 to 3 o'clock daily they study in the school-room, in agriculture as a science as well as in literature; also, from 6 to 8 P. M., in an evening class under the superintendence of a teacher. They are not admitted under fifteen years of age, nor without a certificate of moral character. The course is of two or three years' duration, according to the age and acquirements of the pupils.

The agricultural instruction "embraces the principles of chemistry; the formation, nature, and difference of soils; the rotations of cropping best suited to such varieties; draining, trenching, and subsoiling, and the principles upon which their efficacy depends; house feeding of cattle, and its advantages; the constitution and properties of the different manures; the proper divisions of farms, &c., &c." To this is added a well grounded course of English education in reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, book-keeping, mensuration, land surveying, gauging, geometry, trigonometry, algebra, and navigation.

Such arrangements are made, that each class receives religious instruction from clergymen selected by the parents or guardians. If the teacher of the school wishes to communicate religious instruction, he gives public notice of the time and place, and the pupils can attend or not, according to the wishes of their parents, or their own.

DUNMANWAY MODEL AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL.

The Dunmanway Model Farm is situated in the county of Cork, and consists of twelve acres. The following extracts, taken from the Third Annual Report of Frederic W. Connor, head master of the school, shows its condition in 1852.

The confidence placed by the public in the institution has not diminished. It has had a great increase of visitors. In the attendance of the pupils, an increase of 70 per cent. has taken place from among the various classes of society; a greater number are still anxious to be admitted, but accommodation can not be found for their instruction.

Agricultural Instruction, both of a scientific and practical nature, has been imparted regularly to the pupils during the past year, on the days appointed for giving such. There are very few subjects bearing upon agricultural economy, that have not been brought before their notice. Agricultural instruction is given in the morning, from a quarter past six to half-past eight o'clock; in the evening from nine to half-past nine; and every second week-day from half-past two till a quarter past three, P. M., or an average three hours daily. Information is communicated by lectures, and the study of approved works on agriculture and manuscripts prepared by myself accompanied in every case by searching examinations. The mode of instruction adopted has proved most satisfactory. The pupils take notes during the reading of the lecture; these they immediately transcribe while the subject is yet fresh in the memory. Then subsequently exchange their manuscripts, mutually correcting each other's errors, (including those in spelling and composition,) after which I examine and classify their papers. Thus literary and agricultural instruction go hand in hand, and the agreeableness of the method forms no ordinary incentive to improvement. After my own examination of the class, which alternates with every lecture, I permit each pupil in his turn to examine the class also; at other times to read a lecture of his own composition. Again, I submit to the pupils a series of questions to be answered by them on paper—cause them monthly to write out essays on a given subject—and weekly discuss agricultural questions. As a proof of the interest evinced by them in the prosecution of their studies, I may be permitted to state, that many of them rose at three o'clock in the morning, during the summer, for the purpose of studying the subject of their lesson for that day.

The Agricultural Boarders' Class consists of four pupils, one of whom, being a free pupil, is supported gratuitously by the board. The want of accommodation prevents a greater number being admitted. The class continues to give every satisfaction. Since it was established five young men have been advanced from it to the Glasnevin Model Farm. The selection of members for this class is generally confined to the neighboring farmers' sons—the preference being given to those previously educated at a normal school.

The Pupil-Teachers' Class continues to work well.

The Industrial Class, the members of which are selected from the agricultural class, affords great satisfaction by the order and good conduct of its members, and the efficient manner in which they perform their duties.

The Agricultural Class consists on an average of 37 pupils, the highest number we can conveniently find room for. The pupils composing this class are selected from the advanced classes of the school, who in conjunction with the agricultural boarders and pupil-teachers, receive agricultural instruction for the space of three-quarters of an hour every second week-day, and have also the privilege of attending the morning classes, where extra instruction is afforded. They are instructed in the leading principles of agricultural chemistry, geology, vegetable physiology, &c., and especially in those practical subjects bearing more directly upon their future employment. Of the 37 pupils composing the agricultural class, 30 are the sons of farmers, holding from 20 to 200 acres of land respectively.

The working pupils are required each to keep a journal of the various operations going on on the farm,—the different periods at which crops are sown and harvested,—how managed, &c,—and many other remarks that will form a source of reliable information in after-life. Meteorological observations are also noted down. They also take part in the preparation of the ground for the crops; assist in the sowing, reaping, &c., of all crops; in short, no operation is performed in which their assistance and attention is not so employed as to initiate them into a knowledge of those business habits required to fit them for the duties of afterlife. Permission is granted the pupils to assist their parents in sowing and managing their green crops; and, in inquiring of their parents as to the assistance they receive from the instruction of their children educated at this school, I was happy to find they are in the constant habit of exposing the errors of their fathers' and neighbors' husbandry, and contrasting the system pursued by them with that carried out on the Model Farm.

Since the institution of the agricultural class, 12 young men have been appointed out of it as Teachers of National Schools, and eight are giving assistance on their fathers' farms.

These young men may be looked upon as so many *practical instructors*, who, feeling a zealous interest in the objects of their professions, will, in their intercourse with the neighboring farmers, be the means of materially improving the intelligence and industry of the district.

WORKHOUSE AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS.

One of the most interesting features of the present educational movement, both in England and Ireland, is the successful introduction of industrial training for pauper children into workhouses. There were seventeen workhouse schools in Ireland to which agricultural departments were annexed in 1852. Respecting the operation of these departments in the county of Antrim, Mr. Senior, one of the poor law commissioners, says:

> "Each year shows an increased demand for the workhouse boys by the farmers; the age, therefore, at which the boy leaves the workhouse becomes a very early one; it probably now averages ten years. Each year also shows increased good behavior on the part of the boys, who may, perhaps, be termed apprentices."

Dr. Kirkpatrick in view of another year's experience adds: "Every year's experience convinces me more forcibly of the necessity of a general and efficient system of industrial training for pauper children, and I am happy to find that this opinion is steadily gaining ground both here and in the sister country. The facts previously stated bear me out in this assertion with respect to this country, and the following extracts, which I take leave to quote from a Parlimentary document, will show its progress in England, and may be useful in other respects."

Mr. Doyle, one of the poor law inspectors, in his Report, thus speaks of the progress of industrial education for pauper boys, and of the success which has attended it wherever introduced:

"The guardians of almost every union in this district in which there are upon an average a sufficient number of boys of an age capable of industrial occupation, either have already provided, or have determined to provide the means for their industrial training. The unions of this district being almost exclusively agricultural, the means of industrial training for boys consist chiefly in the cultivation of a few acres of land by spade husbandry. In those unions in which this system can be said to be fairly in operation, it has already been productive of much benefit, and it will be seen by the detailed accounts furnished from some of them that this mode of educating the children in habits of industry is attended with considerable profit to the guardians."

The master of the Wrexham union workhouse, in a communication addressed by him to Mr. Doyle, after describing the lamentable state of things that existed among the youthful inmates previous to the adoption of a system of industrial training, thus proceeds:

"It is these, and such like facts, which have impelled this board of guardians to adopt some plan, if possible, to put a stop to these evils; and hence, in 1848 an acre of potato land was taken as a trial, to be cultivated chiefly by the boys. The success of the experiment was so satisfactory that the board was induced to rent, as a permanent appendage to the workhouse, a field of four acres, in which the schoolmaster in the afternoon of each working day trains the boys in spade husbandry. The profits of the first two years were comparatively small, still they have enabled us to lay in a good stock of tools; and besides, when taken together with the present year's profits, have realized in whole, in form of pauper labor, nearly £90. The statement now sent shows the result of our second year's operations in our own field, and as the general intelligence as well as the muscular capacity of the children is becoming equal to their work, we may expect greater pecuniary results; but at last the moral results likely to flow from our endeavors are the most pleasing; the children are more easily managed than formerly, are more contented and generally happier, and perform their work in a pleasing and cheerful manner. They are, I trust, in connection with the inculcation of sound principles, having those principles trained into habits, which, while they will fortify against temptation, give promise of enabling the children readily to adapt themselves to the sphere in life in which their lot is likely to be cast, and of ultimately becoming wholly independent of parochial relief. I have great pleasure in being able to add, that not one boy who has gone out to service since we began these operations has been returned on our hands, or is likely to be so."

Mr. Everest, clerk of the Atcham Union, writes to Mr. Doyle as follows:

"That the children of the poor may be efficiently taught, and so far as human means may produce the object, made useful and honorable members of society in a union workhouse, is a fact that I have long had the pleasure of witnessing in the union in which I have served from its commencement, as well as in one in which I previously served in the south of England. To illustrate the subject, I will now set forth, in as condensed a form as I can, the principles and practice maintained in the union school during the fourteen years of its operation. At first the number of children was small, the guardians feeling it desirable not to crowd their workhouse until time had afforded all parties concerned in its government a little practical experience therein. A school was at once established; but as no qualified schoolmaster applied in answer to an advertisement for such an officer, the situation was taken by a person who, though deficient in mental acquirements for such an office, was a practical agriculturist, of good moral character, and entered on his duties with a determination to do all he could for the welfare of the children put under his care. The first step was that of making the school a place of moral as well as physical training, to which I attribute its great success. For this purpose every thing that transpired was, to the extent of his ability, made the subject of some practical and familiar observations, enforced by such illustrations as became weighty by example. Industry was from the first a marked characteristic of the school, to inculcate which various indoor occupations were and still are practiced, such as knitting, netting, plaiting straw, &c., by which means it became a natural habit in the children to be doing something that was useful, so that when fatigued with heavier toils the child sat down to rest, it was, I had almost said, an instinctive feeling that led him to take his straws or needles in hand, and yet the gratification afforded when he found he had enough plait for a hat, and the pleasure evinced when by himself or his companions it was so formed, proved that his mind had received a correct bias as to production by his own application, nor was there ever occasion to enforce this practice when once begun, as it became a source of pleasure to be so engaged; but whenever we found a lazy boy it became the subject of a moral lecture, and as work was and still is held to be its own reward in our school, if a boy is found idle the punishment is simple, take him away from his work to look at the others busily employed, and so severe is this in almost every case, that I have scarcely ever known a boy remain half an hour without petitioning for liberty to go to work, and I have been equally pleased to see that others, instead of making any taunting remarks, have become petitioners in behalf of their schoolfellow.

"These may appear trifling incidents, but let guardians and officers try the plan, and watch the issue in future service, and they will find, as I have done, that they are important facts; and I notice them because for the want of seeing this important fact at the outset, that the child is to be trained to the principle of being useful, so much of the other efforts are vain. Another important point we have always aimed at has been to teach the child to do his work well, to do that work in the right way, and then to make him understand why that particular way is best, and this gives them additional interest in their work, while it tends to make them good workmen in after-life. Our chief mode of employment is on the land we cultivate by spade husbandry, a portion of which has, from the opening of the school, been cultivated exclusively by the boys."

* * * * * * * * * *

"Having stated the nature and practice of our school for fourteen years, it only remains to speak of its success. It has been said that the tendency of workhouse schools is to make perpetual paupers, and such statements are made, no doubt, in the full belief of their truth; but I am happy to say that, so far as fourteen years may serve for the data of calculation, it is without a shadow of foundation here. Our children go to service, and I would rather refer inquiriers to their employers for their characters as servants, than speak of it myself. Suffice it to say that, with a very few exceptions, (and those of characters the most vicious and thoroughly formed before they came to us,) and one or two cases of serious illness, they have not returned, except, as is frequently the case, to visit the school where they were trained in the habits of virtue and industry, and leave behind them some trifle, either in money or otherwise, to the school fund. If we trained them up as paupers, I think many of them bid fair to forget the place of their training before they return. Scarcely a child who has been taught in our school leaves it without those feelings of affection for their associates which indicate most clearly that the mind has been cultivated, and the assistance they afford in procuring situations for those they left behind proves the genuine character of their attachments; but to return to the workhouse after going to service is felt to be a disgrace, and will, I hope, as it has hitherto done, prevent such a circumstance ever occurring except in cases that are unavoidable; and in such cases I hope that a sense of rectitude and the love of virtue will seek such an asylum in preference to crime."

Mr. Farnall, another of the poor law inspectors, states:

"On reference to the tables, it will be seen that fifty acres of land, cultivated by 514 boys, have yielded in a year a net profit of £335 7*s.* 1*d.*; there is, however, a far more valuable benefit acquired than that sum of money represents, for these boys have, in the acquirement of this pecuniary profit, been under training for manual labor; have been instructed in the value of labor, and in the connection which must be maintained between labor and property; have been made acquainted, to some extent at least, with the natural world; have felt pleasure in the contemplation of their own work; and have been trained, as far as practicable, to meet the difficulties and distresses which may beset them in their way through life."

THE QUEEN'S COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITY

IN

IRELAND.

The national school system in which secular instruction is kept free from whatever could offend the most susceptible sectarianism, had proved so successful in diffusing a sound elementary education among the children of the peasantry and the working classes of Ireland, that in 1845 the plan was extended so as to provide, under government endowment, the means of obtaining a liberal and professional education for the sons of the middle and upper classes—available to persons of every denomination. This was done by the establishment of the Queen's Colleges at Belfast, Cork, and Galway—now combined and incorporated into the Queen's University, the Senate or governing body of which is seated or holds its meetings at Dublin.

The entire system of United Education has been built up by the cooperation of the two great parties in the State; upon this high ground their only rivalry has been which should contribute most to the common work, and carry out most efficiently its great principle. To the Whig government of Lord Grey, belongs the honor of having first had the courage to proclaim and put in action that principle by the appointment of the first board of commissioners in 1831; the charter which established the schools upon a permanent basis, by constituting the commissioners a body corporate, was a measure of the Tory government of Sir Robert Peel, in 1844; on the other hand, the completion and crowning of the edifice by the addition of the colleges was the idea and enactment of Sir Robert Peel, and has been the achievement, for the greater part, of Lord John Russell. At the opening of the session of parliament on the 4th of February, 1845, her Majesty, in the speech from the throne, recommended to the consideration of the legislature "the policy of improving and extending the opportunities for academical education in Ireland;" and on the 19th of March thereafter, Sir Robert Peel, in reply to a question by Sir Robert Inglis, took an opportunity of laying before the House of Commons an outline of the ministerial plan, both for the establishment of the three new colleges of secular learning and general instruction, and for the endowment of the Roman Catholic Theological College of Maynooth, which had been established by an act of the Irish Parliament in 1795, and had been hitherto dependent for its support only upon an annual grant of very inadequate amount. The two measures thus simultaneously announced and proposed, as in some degree connected with and dependent upon one another, were both carried through parliament in that same session. The Maynooth endowment, however, was made to take the lead. as if to intimate to the general population of Ireland—to what may be more peculiarly called the nationality of the country—that its interests and feelings were what the whole scheme primarily had regard to. If the portion of it relating to the Roman Catholic theological seminary had been defeated, the other portion of it also would probably have been withdrawn. The Maynooth bill encountered a vehement opposition, but it was ultimately passed in both Houses by great majorities. The measure for establishing three secular colleges in Ireland, wholly independent of religious tests or creeds, for the education of the middle classes, was brought forward in the commons by Sir James Graham on the 9th of May. In proposing the second reading of the bill on the 30th, Sir James announced certain alterations which ministers were disposed to make in it, with the view of affording facilities for the theological instruction of the students by clergymen, or lecturers, appointed for that purpose by the several denominations to which they might belong. On the 2d of June, an amendment moved by Lord John Manners for the postponement of the second reading of the bill was negatived, by a majority of 311 to 46. On the 30th, when it was in committee, a proposition from Lord John Russell for making the apparatus of theological instruction in the colleges a part of the establishment to be founded and upheld by the State, was rejected by a majority of 117 to 42. Finally, on the 10th of July the third reading of the bill was carried, against an amendment of Sir Robert Inglis, by a majority of 177 to 126. In the Lords it passed through all its stages without a division.

By this act, entitled "An Act to enable her Majesty to endow new colleges, for the advancement of learning in Ireland," the sum of 100,000*l.* was assigned out of the consolidated fund for purchasing the sites, and erecting and furnishing the buildings, of the three colleges. Her Majesty and her successors were made visitors, with power to appoint, by sign manual, persons to execute the office. The appointment of the presidents, vice-presidents, and professors, was intrusted to the Crown, until parliament should otherwise determine. The commissioners of the treasury were empowered to issue annually a sum not exceeding 7,000*l.*, for the payment of salaries, and other expenses in each college; it being moreover provided that reasonable fees might be exacted from the students. Lecture rooms were directed to be assigned for religious instruction; and it was enacted that no student should be allowed to attend any of the colleges unless he should reside with his parent or guardian, or some near relation, or with a tutor or master of a boarding-house licensed by the president, or in a hall founded and endowed for the reception of students.

A president and vice-president for each college were soon after nominated, and the erection of the buildings was begun. The other appointments were made in August 1849, and the three colleges were opened in the end of October following. An additional sum of 12,000*l.* had shortly before been granted by parliament for providing them with libraries, philosophical instruments and some other requisites.

Originally, it was intended that the number of professors in each college, exclusive of the president and vice-president, should not exceed twelve, and letters patent constituting them upon that basis were passed for each under the great seal of Ireland in December, 1845. Afterwards it was determined that the number should be augmented for the present to nineteen, but that it should not at any time exceed thirty. The vice-president, however, is also a professor. New letters patent embodying that extended scheme were granted in favor of each of the three colleges in November, 1850.

Under the existing constitution, then, the body politic and corporate of each college consists of a president, with a salary of 800*l.* and a house; a vice-president, with a salary of 500*l.* and a house; and professors of Greek, Latin, mathematics, history and English literature, logic and metaphysics, chemistry, natural philosophy, (each with a salary of 250*l.*;) modern languages, natural history, mineralogy and geology, (each with a salary of 200*l.*;) English law, jurisprudence and political economy, civil engineering, and agriculture, (each with a salary of 150*l.*;) the Celtic languages, the practice of surgery, the practice of medicine, materia medica, and midwifery, (each with a salary of 100*l.*) There are also attached to each college a registrar, (with a salary of 200*l.*;) and a bursar and librarian, (each with a salary of 150*l.*) A sum of 300*l.* annually is allowed for the payment of porters and servants. The total annual expenditure for salaries is, thus, (deducting 250*l.* for the professorship held by the vice-president,) 5,500*l.*

The remaining 1,500*l.* of the annual charge on the consolidated fund is allocated to the payment of scholarships and prizes. The scholarships to be awarded at the commencement of the session of 1850–51 at Belfast, are 48 of 24*l.* each to students of the faculty of arts; 4 of 20*l.* each to students of the faculty of medicine; 2 of 20*l.* each to students of the faculty of law; 2 of 20*l.* each to students of civil engineering; and 4 of 15*l.* each to students of agriculture; the number being equally divided in all cases between students of the first and students of the second year. The scholarships are all held for one year only.

The session in all colleges extends from the third Tuesday in October to the second Saturday in June, and is divided into three terms by recesses of a fortnight at Christmas and at Easter. The fees for each class vary from 1*l.* to 2*l.* 10*s.*; and there is besides a payment from each matriculated student to the bursar on behalf of the college of 3*l.* at the commencement of the first year, and 2*l.* at the commencement of every subsequent year.

It had been all along contemplated that matriculation and attendance at these colleges, as at similar institutions established by public authority in our own and other countries, should conduct to graduation both in arts and in every other faculty, except only that of divinity; and all the regulations and arrangements of the academic curiculum in each have been moulded upon that understanding. It was a question for a considerable time whether, with a view to the conferring of degrees and other purposes, each college should be erected into a distinct university, or the three constituted into one university. The latter plan has been adopted, undoubtedly to the placing of the new establishments in a greatly superior position to what they would have held if they had been left each to its provincial insulation; for it could never have happened that a mere Belfast, Cork, or Galway Degree would have carried the same weight with one from the Queen's University in Ireland. The letters patent creating such an university have now received the royal signature. Her Majesty has therein been pleased to declare that "graduates of our said university shall be fully possessed of all such rights, priviliges, and immunities as belong to persons holding similar degrees granted them by other universities, and shall be entitled to whatever rank and precedent is derived from similar degrees granted by other universities." The following individuals constituted the government in 1851:

Chancellor—His Excellency GEORGE WILLIAM FREDERICK, EARL OF CLARENDON, K.G. K.C.B. Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland.

Vice-Chancellor—The Rt. Hon. Maziere Brady, Lord High Chancellor of Ireland.

THE SENATE.

His Grace Richard, Archbishop of Dublin.

The Most Reverend Archbishop Daniel Murray, D.D.

The Right Honorable William, Earl of Rosse. K.P.

The Right Honorable Thomas Baron Monteagle, of Brandon.

The Right Honorable Francis Blackburne, Lord Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench.

The Right Honorable Thomas Berry Cusack Smith, Master of the Rolls.

The Right Honorable David Richard Pigot, Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer.

The Right Honorable Thomas Wyse.

Sir Phillip Crampton, Bart.

The President of the Queen's College, Belfast, for the time being.

The President of the Queen's College, Cork, for the time being.

The President of the Queen's College, Galway, for the time being.

Richard Griffith, LL. D.

Dominic John Corrigan, M.D.

Captain Thomas Askew Larcom, R.E.

James Gibson, Esq., Barrister-at-Law.

Secretary—Robert Ball, Esq., LL.D.

STATUTES, BY-LAWS, AND REGULATIONS.

The Queen's University, founded by Royal Charter, 15th August, 1850, has its seat, and holds its meetings, in the Castle of Dublin, until further order, by warrant of the Lord-Lieutenant.

The Chancellor and Senate are a corporation under the title of the Queen's University in Ireland; may sue, and may be sued, as a common seal, and acquire property not to exceed ten thousand pounds a year.

The government of the University vests in the Chancellor and the Senate. The Chancellor presides over its meetings, and authenticates its acts.

The Senate is formed of the three Presidents of the Queen's Colleges for the time being, and certain other persons appointed by warrant under the sign manual; in all not to exceed twenty. The vice-presidents of colleges may exercise the functions of senators in the absence of their respective presidents. Five members of the Senate constitute a quorum, the chairman having a casting vote.

A vice-chancellor is to be elected annually by the Senate, and when his election is approved of by the Lord-Lieutenant, he is empowered to exercise all the functions of Chancellor in the absence of the latter.

The Senate, in the absence of both Chancellor and Vice-Chancellor, may elect a chairman to conduct ordinary business.

The Senate appoint a secretary and such subordinate officers as may be necessary for dispatch of business.

The Senate have full power to make and alter by-laws and regulations; these being approved by the Lord-Lieutenant, and sealed with the common seal, become binding upon the University.

In all cases not provided for by charter, the Chancellor and Senate shall act in such manner as may appear best calculated to promote the purposes intended by the University.

Meetings of the Senate shall be convened by the secretary or acting-secretary, on the authority of the Chancellor; or, in his absence, of the Vice-Chancellor, or of the chairman of a meeting of the Senate, elected as provided in the charter.

There shall be stated meetings on the 7th of January and 20th of June, in each year, or on the following day, when either of these days shall fall on a Sunday.

The Queen's Colleges of Belfast, Cork, and Galway, are constituted Colleges of the Queen's University, and their professors are considered professors of the University.

The power of the University Senate over the Colleges extends only to the regulation of qualification for the several degrees.

The Queen reserves to herself and successors the office of Visitor, with power to appoint others to execute the duties.

The Chancellor or Vice-Chancellor is required to report annually to the Lord-Lieutenant on the condition and progress of the University.

The Chancellor and Senate have power to found and endow scholarships, prizes, or exhibitions, for which funds may be supplied by grant or donation, under such regulations as they may think fit to make, not interfering with the courses prescribed for scholars of Queen's Colleges, or for matriculation therein.

The Queen's University is empowered to grant degrees in arts, medicine, or laws, to students in the Queen's Colleges who shall have completed the courses of education prescribed by the ordinances. Persons who obtain these degrees shall be possessed of all rights and privileges pertaining to similar degrees granted by other universities or colleges.

The Chancellor and Senate have power to admit, by special grace, graduates of other universities to similar and equal degrees in the Queen's University.

All degrees shall be granted and conferred publicly in the hall of the University.

At all meetings of the Senate to confer degrees, the members shall appear in the full robes they may be entitled to wear in respect of any degrees they may have obtained, or offices they may hold. Any member not possessed of a degree or office, to wear the gown of a master of arts.

Candidates for degrees shall wear the costume of their collegiate standing, and the hoods of the degrees sought.

Candidates being presented to the Senate by the presidents of their colleges, and the secretary having certified that their fees have been paid, and that they have duly passed the examiners, they shall sign the roll of the University, when the Chancellor (or Vice-Chancellor) shall admit them to degrees in the following manner:

> In virtue of my authority as Chancellor (or Vice-Chancellor) I admit you (———) to the degree of (———).

The Chancellor (or Vice-Chancellor) shall then proceed to present publicly any exhibition or medal which may have been awarded.

Examiners are expected to attend the public meeting of the Senate.

The present courses of study required by the University are prescribed in the ordinances which were prepared by the presidents of the colleges, approved of by the Lord-Lieutenant, and adopted by the Senate at its first meetings. These ordinances remain in force until altered by the Senate: such alterations to be subject to the approval of the Lord-Lieutenant.

The qualifications of candidates for degrees shall be examined into at a special meeting of the Senate.

Each candidate is required to fill up, with his own hand, a certificate of his name, birthplace, age, and qualifications.

All certificates of candidates to be sent to the secretary fourteen days before examination.

The Senate will receive certificates of medical education for two-thirds of the required courses, from the professors of universities and chartered bodies, and from schools and hospitals, which have sought for and obtained the recognition of the Senate; but it is essential that one-third, at least, of the medical lectures prescribed in the course for the degree of M.D., be attended in some one of the Queen's Colleges.

Examinations for degrees, and for scholarships and prizes, shall be appointed and directed by the Senate, who shall elect examiners annually.

In no case shall any member of the Senate, or any Vice-President of a college (liable to be called upon to fulfill the duties of a member,) be elected an examiner.

The salaries of examiners shall commence from the next quarter-day after election.

Examinations shall be by printed papers.

Each examiner shall be present during the whole time that the candidates are engaged in writing answers to the papers set by him; but if a paper be set by more than one examiner, the presence of one examiner shall be deemed sufficient; if, from unavoidable necessity, any examiner be unable to attend, the secretary shall be present.

Every member of the Senate shall have the right of being present during examinations, but only the examiner specially appointed to conduct examinations shall have the right to put questions.

No candidates shall be present except those under examination.

The examiners shall report to the Senate the result of their examination, and shall deliver in at the same time, in sealed packets, the answers to the examination papers of the classes which they have severally examined.

The amount of fees to be paid on the granting of degrees shall be directed from time to time by the Chancellor and Senate, with the approbation of the Lord's Commissioners of Her Majesty's Treasury.

For the present, the fee on the degree of M.D. has been fixed at 5l., and the fee on the diploma of agriculture, at 2l. Fees on other degrees are not yet settled.

The fees are to be carried to the general fund.

Accounts of income and expenditure of the University shall once in each year be submitted to the treasury, subject to such audit as may be directed.

The Bank of Ireland has been appointed treasurer.

Payments shall be made by drafts signed by the Chancellor or Vice-Chancellor, countersigned by the secretary.

Although much clamor has been raised against the Queen's Colleges, because, in the distracted state of Ireland in religious matters, the British Parliament has at last attempted to establish a plan of liberal education, the special purpose and profession of which is to communicate instruction in certain branches of human knowledge to classes which may be composed of young people belonging to various religious denom inations, we believe there is no ground for alarm, or distrust, for the safety of the religious principles of the students who may resort to them. On the other hand, securities are provided, more protective and and conservative than exist in any other academic institution in the empire, which are open to other than students of one religious denomination.

At the ancient national universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and Trinity College, Dublin, there are no arrangements which even recognize the existence of any form of religious belief but that of the Established Church; not only is the student who may hold any other creed (in so far as such dissenting students are admitted at all) left without any spiritual superintendence whatever, but the entire system of teaching and discipline is in the hands of members of the church established by law, and is regulated and administered in all respects in conformity with the doctrines and ritual of that church. Yet, Roman Catholics generally have long been in the habit of sending their sons without hesitation or scruple to the university of Dublin; freedom of admission to Oxford and Cambridge has always been one of the demands which Protestant dissenters have urged most clamorously; and no non-conformist community has ever put forth an authoritative denunciation of either the demand or the practice.

In the Scottish universities the professors are all by law members of the Presbyterian Established Church; any seasoning of theology, therefore, that may insinuate itself into the lectures delivered by them, or their mode of teaching, must be Presbyterian; it may be Presbyterian of the strongest and, to all but the disciples of Calvin and John Knox, of the most offensive flavor. On the other hand, at least at Edinburg and Glasgow, there is no religious superintendence of the students whatever. So here is the extreme of rigor and exclusiveness, combined with the extreme of laxity and neglect. Yet these universities are attended by members of all communions; and certainly it is not the liberality of the system in giving free admission to all sects which any body of dissenters has ever made matter of complaint.

In University College, London, there is the same freedom of admission for students of all descriptions as at the Scotch colleges, with the same entire absence of religious superintendence as at Edinburg and Glasgow; and no religious test is applied to the professors any more than to the students. Many religious fathers of all denominations, nevertheless, have been accustomed ever since it was established to send their sons to be educated in all the great branches of human learning at University College.

In the first place, every professor in these Irish colleges, upon entering into office, signs a declaration promising and engaging that, in his lectures and examinations, and in the performance of all other duties connected with his chair, he will carefully abstain from teaching or advancing any doctrine, or making any statement, either derogatory to the truths of revealed religion, or injurious or disrespectful to the religious convictions of any portion of his class or audience. And it is enacted, that, if he shall in any respect violate this engagement, he shall be summoned before the College Council, where, upon sufficient evidence of his having so transgressed, he shall be formally warned and reprimanded by the president; and that, if he shall be guilty of a repetition of said or similar offense, the president shall forthwith suspend him from his functions, and take steps officially to recommend to the Crown his removal from office. The appointments of the professors are all held during the pleasure of the Crown. A triennial visitation of each college is ordained to be held during the college session by a Board of Visitors which has already been appointed by the Crown, and which comprises the heads of the Episcopalian, Presbyterian, and Roman Catholic churches in Ireland.

But further, every student is actually subjected to an extent of religious superintendence such as is enforced nowhere else, unless it be only at Oxford and Cambridge. No matriculated student under the age of twenty-one years is permitted to reside except with his parent or guardian, or with some relation or friend to whose care he shall have been committed by his parent or guardian, and who shall be approved of by the president of the college, or in a boarding-house licensed by the president upon a certificate, produced by the person keeping it, of moral and religious character from his clergyman or minister. The relation or friend to whose care a student is committed must in all cases formally accept the charge of his moral and religious conduct. Clergymen, each approved by the bishop, moderator, or constituted authority of his church or religious denomination, are appointed by the Crown Deans of Residences, to have the moral care and spiritual charge of the students of their respective creeds residing in the licensed boarding-houses; and it is provided that they shall have authority to visit such boarding-houses for the purpose of affording religious instruction to such students, and shall also have power, with the concurrence of the president of the college, and of the authorities of their respective churches, "to make regulations for the due observance of the religious duties of such students, and for securing their regular attendance on divine worship." Finally, at the head of the list of offenses in the statutes of each college for which it is enacted that any student shall be liable to expulsion, are the following: "1. Habitual neglect of attendance for divine worship at such church or chapel as shall be approved by his parents or guardians; 2. Habitual neglect of attendance on the religious instruction provided for students of his church or denomination in the licensed boarding-house in which he may reside."

The above account of the Queen's University in Ireland is drawn up principally from an article in the Companion to British Almanac for 1851, and from the London Educational Register for 1852.

ENGLAND.

We propose to introduce an account of several of the best training schools of England, the most efficient and hopeful agency now at work in the educational field, with a brief sketch of the history of public schools in that country, drawn from various sources.*

I. The earliest mention of a school in England, dates back to the permanent introduction of Christianity; and for many centuries afterwards, schools even of the most elementary character, were only found in connection with monasteries and cathedrals. Even these were mostly swept away by the Danish invasion, so that King Alfred, about the year 880, was obliged to invite learned prelates from abroad,—John of Saxony from Corbie, Asser of St. Davids, and Grimbald the provost of St. Omer, in Normandy, to establish schools for his own subjects, and especially such as were destined for the service of church and state. To the support of these schools, and particularly the one connected with the monastery of Ethelingey, he set apart one-ninth of his revenue. To the centuries immediately following, we may trace the foundation of many existing educational establishments, by eminent prelates—to the "song scole" where poor boys were trained to chant, and the "lecture scole" where clerks were taught to read in the service of the church. Sampson, Abbot of St. Edmunds, himself a poor boy, founded a school at Bury St. Edmunds for forty boys, in 1198. Langfranc and Anselm, archbishops of Canterbury, had both exercised the profession of teacher in the schools of their monasteries, and both established schools. Joffrid, Abbot of Croyland, procured teachers from Orleans where he was educated, and established them at Cotenham in 1110, which is thought to be the origin of the university at Cambridge. William of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester, to relieve poor scholars in their clerical education, and for the support and exaltation of the Christian faith, and the improvement of the liberal arts, founded a college in 1382 at Oxford, and in 1387 at Winchester, as a nursery of the former. In schools thus established, the dignitaries of the church, while they trained up poor youth for the service of the altar, and made the clergy respected by their learning, in reality introduced a new power into society, to soften and control the influence of birth and wealth. Few of the laity could read, and the law which existed in England till within the last twenty years, by which the severity of the statutes against felony was modified by what was called "benefit of clergy," shows how gradually the ability to read was extended beyond the religious orders. In early times, clergymen claimed the privilege of being exempt in certain cases from criminal punishment by secular judges. They appeared in clerical habits, and claimed the *privilegium clericale*. At length the ability to read was of itself considered sufficient to establish the privilege, and all offenders who claimed their "clergy" had to read a passage from the Psalms, which came to be humorously called "the neck verse." This was no merely theoretical privilege, for the ability to read, absurd as it may appear, saved an offender in the first instance from the full penalty of his crime. There is a curious case recorded in the Paston Letters, as happening in 1464. Thomas Gurney employed his man to slay "my Lord of Norwich's cousin." They were both tried and convicted of the crime. Thomas Gurney pleaded his clergy, and was admitted to mercy as "clerk convict;" the less guilty servant, being unable to read, was hanged. But the rank of Thomas Gurney gave no assurance that he possessed any knowledge of letters. Some amongst the highest in rank affected to despise knowledge, especially when the invention of printing had rendered the ability to read more common than in the days of precious manuscripts. Even as late as the first year of Edward VI. it was not only assumed that a peer of the realm might be convicted of felony, but that he might lack the ability to read, so as to claim benefit of clergy; for it is enacted that any Lord of the Parliament claiming the benefit of this act (1st of Edward VI. cap. 12,) "*though he can not read*, without any burning in the hand, loss of inheritance, or corruption of his blood, shall be judged, deemed, taken, and used, for the first time only, to all intents, constructions, and purposes, as a clerk convict." That the nobility were unfitted, through ignorance, for the discharge of high offices in the State at the time of the reformation, is shown by a remarkable passage in Latimer's "Sermon of the Plough," preached n 1548: "Why are not the noblemen and young gentlemen of Engand so brought up in knowledge of God, and in learning, that they may e able to execute offices in the common weal? * * * If the nobility be vell trained in godly learning, the people would follow the same train: or truly such as the noblemen be, such will the people be. * * * Therefore for the love of God appoint teachers and schoolmasters, you hat have charge of youth, and give the teachers stipends worthy their ains." Honest old Latimer thus demanded that "the young gentlenen" of England should be educated; that the hundreds should be well brought up in learning and the knowledge of God," so that "they vould not, when they came to age, so much give themselves to other anities."

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* Companion to the British Almanac for 1847. Sir James Kay Shuttleworth's Public Education from 1846 to 1852. Low's Charities of London.

II. The suppression of the monasteries by Henry VIII, and the diversion of the funds left by charitable persons for the education and support of the poor, was followed by the destruction of a large portion of the schools of the kingdom, for which a partial atonement was made by the endowment out of these funds of a class of schools, now known as grammar schools. That all the lands and buildings of the Catholic church were not thus appropriated, is evident from the following extract from a sermon preached by Thomas Lever, a master of St. John's College, Cambridge, before king Edward VI., in 1550: "Your majesty hath given and received by act of Parliament, colleges, chantries, and guilds, for many good considerations; and, especially, as appears in the same act, for erecting of grammar schools, to the education of youth in virtue and godliness, to the further augmenting of the universities, and better provision of the poor and needy. But now, many grammar schools, and much charitable provision for the poor, be taken, sold, and made away, to the great slander of you and your laws, to the utter discomfort of the poor, to the grievous offense of the people, to the most miserable drowning of youth in ignorance, and sore decay of the universities." The same plain speaker accuses the rapacious courtiers with having applied the funds for the maintenance of learning to their own profit: "Yea, and in the country many grammar schools, which be founded of a godly intent, to bring up poor men's sons in learning and virtue, now be taken away by reason of a greedy covetousness of you, that were put in trust by God and the king to erect and make grammar schools in many places, and had neither commandment nor permission to take away the schoolmasters' livings in any place." And yet, according to Strype, the ecclesiastical historian who quotes these passages, the creatures of the crown did not altogether succeed in their career of rapacity; for the "good king was so honest and just" as to apply the spoils of the religious houses and chantry lands, "in a considerable manner," to "pious ends." Twenty-one grammar schools are enumerated as thus founded by Edward VI.; and several of these are still amongst the most flourishing institutions of the country. The example continued to be followed during a century and a half; and many free grammar schools were established for the instruction of poor children in the learned languages. * * * From these often humble and unpretending edifices has issued a series of names illustrious in the annals of their country—a succession of men, often of obscure parentage and stinted means, who have justified the wisdom of the founders of grammar schools in providing education for those who would otherwise have been without it, and thus securing to the State the services of the best of her children.

According to the digests of the reports made by the commissioners for inquiry into charities, presented to Parliament in 1842, the annual income of the grammar schools of England and Wales, amounted to 152,047*l.*; but some schools were exempted from the inquiry.

About the time of the revolution the commercial classes, who had grown into wealth and consequent importance, began naturally to think that schools in which nothing was taught but Latin and Greek were not altogether fitted for those who were destined to the life of traffic. Uneducated men who had pushed their way to fortune and honor generously resolved to do something for their own class; and thus we came to see in every town, not a free grammar school, but a free school, over whose gates was generally set up the effigy of a boy in blue or green, with an inscription betokening that by the last will of alderman A. B. this school had been founded for twenty poor boys, to be clothed, and taught reading, writing, and arithmetic. With a comparatively small population these free schools, were admirable beginnings of the education of the poorer classes. While the grammar schools were making divines and lawyers and physicians out of the sons of the professional classes and the wealthier tradesmen, the free schools were making clever handicraftsmen and thriving burgesses out of the sons of the mechanics and the laborers; and many a man who had been a charity-boy in his native town, when he had risen to competence, pointed with an honest pride to the institution which had made him what he was, and he drew his purse-strings to perpetuate for others the benefits which he had himself enjoyed.

The annual income of the schools we have described, distinguished in the digests of the commissioners as "Schools not Classical," is returned as 141,385*l.* With the addition of 19,112*l.* for general educational purposes, the total income of *endowed charities for education* in England and Wales is 312,545*l.*

Comparing all the returns, we may say in round numbers that the income of the endowed schools is 300,000*l.*; the number of schools 4,000; and the number of scholars 150,000.

The 300,000*l.* thus derived from the rent of land, rent charges, funded securities, &c., during three centuries, has been the foundation upon which has been built up much of the sterling worth of the English character. One hundred and fifty thousand children have been receiving, for a long series of years,—some the most liberal education, some the commoner rudiments of worldly knowledge, all of them religious instruction.

They have kept alive the liberal studies which have nourished a race of divines, lawyers, physicians, statesmen, that may challenge comparison with those of any nation. They have opened the gates of the higher employments to industry and talent unsupported by rank and riches. They have mitigated the inequalities of society. They have ploughed up the subsoil of poverty to make the surface earth stronger and richer. What the grammar schools have done for the higher and middle classes, the free schools have done for the lower in a different measure. They were the prizes for the poor boy who had no ambition, perhaps no talent, for the struggles of the scholar; they taught him what, amongst the wholly untaught, would give him a distinction and a preference in his worldly race,—and he was unenvied by the less fortunate, because they knew that there was no absolute bar to their children and their kindred running the same course.

III. With the beginning of the present century a new era in popular education in England commenced by the formation of voluntary associations to extend the blessings of knowledge, human and divine, to the great mass of the people. Prior to this, there had been individuals in advance of their age, who had advocated universal education.

Sir Thomas More, in his "Utopia," professedly written to describe "the best state of a public weal," says, "Though there be not many in every city which be exempt and discharged of all other labors, and appointed only to learning—that is to say, such in whom, even from their very childhood, they have perceived a singular towardness, a fine wit, and a mind apt to good learning—yet *all in their childhood be instructed in learning*. And *the better part of the people*, both men and women, *throughout all their whole life, do bestow in learning those spare hours* which we said they have *vacant from bodily labors*." This is the condition to which the people of England are surely tending—the condition of *elementary instruction for all children*—the habit of *self-culture for all adults.*

In his celebrated "Wealth of Nations," first published in 1766, Adam Smith, advocating the instruction of almost "the whole body of the people" in "the most essential parts of education," says, "The public can facilitate this acquisition by establishing in every parish or district a little school, where children may be taught for a reward so moderate, that even a common laborer may afford it; the master being partly, but not wholly. paid by the public; because if he were wholly, or even principally paid by it, he would soon learn to neglect his business. In Scotland, the establishment of such parish schools has taught almost the whole common people to read, and a very great proportion of them to write and account. In England, the establishment of charity schools has had an effect of the same kind, though not so universally, because the establishment is not so universal." This seed was altogether sown upon barren ground. The establishment of parochial schools, which would have taught the children of the laboring classes habits of foresight and independence, could not be thought of whilst the easier system was at hand to keep them in the condition of degraded pauperism.

The state of education in England at the commencement of the present century, is described in few words by Malthus, in his celebrated "Essay on Population," published in 1803: "We have lavished immense sums on the poor, which we have every reason to think have constantly tended to aggravate their misery. But in their education, and in the circulation of those important political truths that most nearly concern them, which are perhaps the only means in our power of really raising their condition, and of making them happier men and more peaceable subjects, we have been miserably deficient. It is surely a great national disgrace, that the education of the lower classes of the people in England should be left merely to a few Sunday schools, supported by a subscription from individuals, who can give to the course of instruction in them any kind of bias which they please. And even the improvement of Sunday schools (for, objectionable as they are in some points of view, and imperfect in all, I can not but consider them as an improvement) is of very late date."

At the time when Malthus wrote this, SUNDAY SCHOOLS had not been in efficient existence more than twenty years. The indefatigable founder of these valuable institutions, Mr. Raikes of Gloucester, wrote in his newspaper, in 1783, "Some of the clergy in different parts of this country, bent upon attempting a reform among the children of the lower class, *are establishing* Sunday schools for rendering the Lord's Day subservient to the ends of instruction, which has hitherto been prostituted to bad purposes." From the hour when Mr. Stock, the benevolent rector of St. John's, Gloucester, met Mr. Raikes at his own door, where they talked of the necessity of doing something to ameliorate the deplorable state of the poor children around them, the system of Sunday schools has gone on most surely and rapidly developing. In 1785, "the Society for the Support and Encouragement of Sunday schools;" and in 1803, the "Sunday School Union," were established. We can overrate the positive benefits which have been arrived from the extension, and unjust to depreciate the importance of these schools as part of a great system of national progress. There were in 1852, 2,000,000 scholars in 20,000 schools.

In the absence alike of any old parochial system of education, and of endowments for popular instruction worthy of mention, it is not surprising, however, that, thus sustained, the Sunday school, during the last half century, should have become a great institution in the manufacturing districts, where the old parochial system of religious ministration was equally defective. The feelings of employers, parents, and teachers, all united in the erection and support of the Sunday school; not in most instances, without a high regard for its secular as well as religious uses, *which is now however gradually giving way to a desire to make its duties more purely spiritual.* The first step usually taken in furtherance of this desire, is to teach writing and arithmetic on two or three evenings of the week, instead of a part of the Sunday. The next step, seeing that the great majority of the children, especially in poor neighborhoods, are still occupied on the Sundays chiefly in learning the mere art of reading though the Scriptures and Scripture extracts are the textbooks, is to endeavor by the establishment of public day schools within the same walls, or in the same neighborhoods, gradually to get the young prepared for a higher task on the Sunday,—that of possessing themselves more fully of the truths unfolded in the words which they have elsewhere learned to decipher. The first step has generally been taken; the second, but partially; and yet with effects upon the Sunday school itself which will challenge the deepest feelings of gratitude, in observing the labors of the best Sunday schools of the manufacturing towns.

In 1807, Mr. Whitbread came forward in the House of Commons, to propose a plan for the "exaltation of the character of the laborer" by the establishment of parochial schools. On this occasion Mr. Whitbread, said, "I can not help noticing to the house that this is a period particularly favorable for the institution of a national system of education, because within a few years there has been discovered a plan for the instruction of youth which is now brought to a state of great perfection, happily combining rules by which the object of learning must be infallibly attained with expedition and cheapness, and holding out the fairest prospect of utility to mankind." This plan was the MONITORIAL SYSTEM, propounded nearly at the same time by Dr. Bell and Mr. Lancaster. Mr. Whitbread's proposal for parochial schools was honored by no very favorable reception by the legislature of that day. It proposed as limited an amount of education as might have mitigated the jealousies even of those whose confidence in the stability of our institutions was founded upon the possibility of keeping the people in ignorance. It proposed that the poor children of each parish should receive two years' education, between the age of seven and fourteen. The advantages of education even of this limited kind were weighed in the money-balance and the moral-balance of the opinions of that day; and some said that it was monstrous to think of taxing the occupiers of lands and houses in order that all the children of the country should be taught to read and write; and some that it tended to give an education to the lower classes above their condition. Mr. Windham, came forward with the often repeated assertion, that "if the teachers of the good and the propagators of bad principles were to be candidates for the control of mankind, the latter would be likely to be too successful." Mr. Whitbread's bill was of course laid on the shelf.

The origin of the monitorial system is attributed to Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster—by the friends of each, the latter founding the British and Foreign School Society in 1805, and the latter, the National Society in 1811—the origin of which is thus described by Sampson Low in his "Charities of London."

Whilst superintendent of the Military Orphan Asylum at Madras, in 1791, Dr. Bell one day observed a boy belonging to a Malabar school writing in the sand; thinking that method of writing very convenient, both as regards cheapness and facility, he introduced it in the school of the asylum, and as the usher refused to teach by that method, he employed one of the cleverest boys to teach the rest. The experiment of teaching by a boy was so remarkably successful, that he extended it to the other branches of instruction, and soon organized the whole school under boy teachers, who were themselves instructed by the doctor. On his return to England, he published a report of the Madras Orphan Asylum, in which he particularly pointed out the new mode of school organization, as far more efficient than the old.

The publication took place in 1797, and in the following year Dr. Bell introduced the system into the school of St. Botolph's, Aldgate, London.

He afterwards introduced it at Kendal, and made attempts with small success to obtain its adoption in Edinburgh. Settling down soon after as rector of Swanage in Dorchester, he was secluded from the world for seven years; yet he retained his strong opinion of the value of the new system of education, and had the school at Swanage conducted on that system.

In the meanwhile Joseph Lancaster, son of a Chelsea pensioner, in the Borough-road London, opened a school in his father's house, in the year 1798, at the early age of eighteen. He had been usher in schools, and being of an original, enterprising, and ardent character, he had himself made improvements in tuition. Dr. Bell's pamphlet having fallen in his way, he adopted the Madras system with eagerness, making various alterations in its details. In the year 1802, he had brought his school into a very perfect state of organization, and found himself as well able to teach 250 boys with the aid of the senior boys as teachers, as before to teach 80. His enthusiasm and benevolence led him to conceive the practicability of bringing all the children of the poor under education by the new system, which was not only so attractive as to make learning a pleasure to the children, but was so cheap as exceedingly to facilitate the establishment and support of schools for great numbers of the poor. He published pamphlets recommending the plan, and in one of them ascribes the chief merit of the system to Dr. Bell, whom he afterwards visited at Swanage. His own school he made free, and obtained subscriptions from friends of education for its support. The Duke of Bedford, having been invited to visit it, became a warm and liberal patron of the system. Lancaster pushed his plan with the ceaseless energy of an enthusiast; nothing daunted or discouraged him; he asked subscriptions for new schools from every quarter; and at length he was admitted to an interview with the king (at Weymouth in 1806.) Being charmed with what he heard of his large designs, the admirable order and efficiency of his schools, and also with the simplicity and overflowing benevolence of the man, his majesty subscribed £100 a year, the queen £50, and the princess £25 each, to the extension of the "Lancasterian system." The king also declared himself to be the patron of the society which was soon afterwards formed to promote education on this system. Such was the origin of the "British and Foreign School Society."*

Dr. Bell's method thus publicly brought forward and advocated, in process of time was adopted in the Lambeth schools, by the Archbishop of Canterbury: and in the Royal Military School, by the Duke of York's authority; numerous schools forthwith springing into existence upon what is known to this day as *the Madras system;* the distinctive features between these and such as were founded by Lancaster's party, consisting in the extent to which the religious instruction should be mixed with the secular; the former, as a clergyman of the established church, advocating the inculcation of the truths of Christianity as held in the church articles and formularies; the latter, representing the dissenting interests, admitted the reception of the Bible as the foundation of all instruction, but *without any note or comment.* This still remains the essential difference between the two societies and the schools conducted on their principles. In 1808, Dr. Bell endeavored to induce the government to take up his plans, and to establish "A National Board" of education, with schools placed under the management of the parochial clergy. In this he failed, but friends of the established church rallied round him, and, through their efforts and under the patronage of the bishop and clergy, the National Society was eventually formed in 1811.

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* Originally designated "The Royal Lancasterian Institution for promoting the Education of the Children of the Poor." In 1808, Lancaster resigning his affairs into the hands of trustees, it assumed more of the character of a public institution. Mr. Lancaster died in 1838, supported, in his latter days, solely by an annuity purchased for him by a few old and attached friends. Dr. Bell died in 1832, leaving the princely sum of £120,000 for the encouragement of literature and the advancement of education.

The earliest voluntary agency of popular education was "the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge" founded in 1698, to aid in the establishment of charity schools, and the publication and circulation at a low price of religious books. By 1750, the society had aided in the establishment of sixteen hundred Church Charity Schools. From 1733, when the society began to report its annual issues of publication, to 1840, it had distributed upwards of 94,000,000 millions of books and tracts. The annual returns for publication is about £55,000, and its income from dividends, contributions and legacies, about £33,000.

The Religious Tract Society was instituted in 1799, for circulating religious works of its own, in the British dominion and foreign countries, under the direction of a committee of churchmen and protestant dissenters. Its total distribution to March, 1849, was nearly 500,000,000 of copies of its publication. Its gross income is £60,000 per annum, of which £12,000 was derived from annual subscription.

The first school established in Great Britain, exclusively for *adults*, was at Bala, a village in Merionethshire, in 1811, by Rev. T. Charles, minister of the place. This was so successful as to induce their establishment in other places. In 1812, William Smith, aided by Stephen Prout, commenced a similar school in Bristol, which led to the establishment of the "Bristol Institution for instructing the adults to read the Holy Scriptures." In 1813 the object was extending to teaching writing. In 1816, a similar society was founded in London. These schools were introduced into over thirty towns in the course of a few years.

The first *evening school* was established in Bristol in 1806, by the "Benevolent Evenings School Society" to afford gratuitous instruction to the sons of the laboring poor, who from the nature of their circumstances are obliged to work hard during the day for their subsistence. Instruction was confined to reading, writing, and arithmetic. Up to 1849, 13,002 persons had been enrolled as members of the schools.

Both adults and evening schools accomplished much good, and prepared the way for the gradual extension of the system of Mechanic

Institutes, into which they have been merged. Through their instructions, upwards of 30,000 of the poor of England, 180,000 of Wales, 30,000 of Ireland, and a large number in the Highlands of Scotland, making an aggregate of over 250,000 adult persons were taught to read.

In 1815 the first infant school[*] was established by James Buchanan at New Lanark, under the auspices of Robert Owen; and in 1819 at London, under the patronage of Mr. Brougham and Lord Lansdowne, and others; and through the labors of one of the first teachers, Mr. Wilderspin, its methods were widely disseminated throughout the kingdom. These methods were greatly improved and more wisely applied in the model schools of the Home and Colonial Infant School Society, founded in 1836. The objects of the society are, 1. To qualify masters and ministers, by appropriate instruction and practice. 2. To visit and examine schools when required. 3. To circulate information, and prepare books and fixtures appropriate to these schools.

The history of the *Mechanics' Institution* through all its phases of development, from the earliest young men's mutual improvement society established in London, in 1690, with encouragement of Defoe, Dr. Kidder, and others, under the name of "Society for the Reformation of Manners"—the Society for the Suppression of Vice—"the Reformation Society of Paisley" in 1787; the Sunday Society in 1789, the Cast Iron Philosophers in 1791, the first Artisans' Library in 1795, and the Birmingham Brotherly Society in 1796, all among the working classes of Birmingham;—the popular scientific lectures of Dr. John Anderson, to tradesmen and mechanics in Glasgow, in 1793—the establishment of the Anderson's University at that place in 1796, and the incorporation into it of a gratuitous course of elementary philosophical lectures by Dr. Birbeck in 1799, for the benefit of mechanics,—the Edinburgh School of Arts in 1821, the Glasgow Mechanics' Institute, the Liverpool Mechanics' and Apprentices' Library, and the London Mechanic Institution in 1823—which from this date, through the labors of Dr. Birbeck, Mr. Brougham and others, spread rapidly all over the kingdom until there are now over 700 societies scattered through every considerable village, especially every manufacturing district in the kingdom, numbering in 1849, 120,000 members, 408 reading-rooms, and 815,000 volumes—constitute one of the most interesting chapters in the educational or social history of Great Britain. They have created a demand for a system of national education, which found its first expression in Parliament in 1833, in a grant of £20,000, on motion of Lord Althorpe.

In 1825, as one of the direct results of the extended and growing interest in mechanic institutions and popular libraries, the "Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge" was formed, which commenced immediately a series of cheap and useful publications in a great variety of subjects, and thus lead the way to a new era in English literature—the preparation of books adapted in subject and mode of treatment, as well as in price, to the circumstances of the great mass of the people. In 1831, this society commenced a quarterly journal of education, which was discontinued in 1836, at the close of the tenth volume. In 1836, two volumes of essays on education, several of them delivered as lectures before the American Institute of Instruction, was published by this society. These twelve volumes, and the four volumes* published by the Central Society of Education, composed of several of the most active and liberal-minded members of the former society, contributed a large mass of valuable information as to the organization, administration, and instruction of public schools in different countries, and prepared the way, in 1839, for the appointment of the Committee of Privy Council on Education. Before noticing briefly the action of Parliament, and the measures of this government committee, we will conclude our sketch of the voluntary agencies in behalf of popular education.

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[*] The founder of infant schools was J. F. Oberlin, Pastor of Waldbach in the Ban de la Roche, in the north-eastern section of France, who in his educational reform in his parish appointed females, (paid at his own expense,) to gather the poor children between the ages of 2 and 6 years, and instruct and interest them by pictures, maps, and conversation, and to teach them to read, knit, and sew. In Germany there is now a class of schools called Kribben—or Cradle—and Garden Schools where literally infant children, whose mothers are obliged to go out to work by day, are received and properly cared for and instructed during their absence.

Among the most important agencies now at work in Great Britain, are the Industrial, Ragged† and Reform Schools, designed for pauper, neglected, and criminal children.

Ragged schools in London had their origin in the operations of the London City Mission—the first school being founded in 1837, in Westminster, by Mr. Walker, an agent of that society. Its success led to the establishment of similar schools in the most debased and debasing streets of the metropolis, and gathered in mendicant and ragged children, already sunk in ignorance and vice, and unfit to mix with the scholars of an ordinary school. In 1844, the Ragged School Union was formed to encourage and assist those who teach in this class of schools, and to suggest plans for their extension and more efficient management. In 1852, the union embraced 60 schools with 13,000 children, and had an income from subscription and contributions of about $14,000, in addition to the sums contributed in each locality for its own schools.

The most systematic and successful enterprise of this class was instituted and carried out by William Watson, Sheriff-substitute of Aberdeenshire in Scotland, who organized, in 1841, a system of industrial schools which embraced in its operations all classes of idle vagrant children, and cleared a large town and county of juvenile criminals and beggars—thereby establishing an enviable reputation as a wise political economist, an efficient magistrate, and a practical benefactor of his country and race. His plan, which was developed gradually, embraced, first, gratuitous education. This succeeded only partially. He next, held out, three substantial meals a day, and four hours of useful but self-imposed occupation. This was a stronger inducement; but all the vagrant children did not come. Then, under the police act, all street begging was prohibited, and all found begging were sent to the industrial school for food, instruction, and work. And to reform those who still gained their bread by thieving, a child's asylum was founded, to which these young criminals were sent to school, or be taught useful knowledge and a trade, instead of to a prison. By these various agencies, street vagrancy and juvenile crimes has been annihilated. Some of the features of this system have been tried in all of the large towns in the kingdom, and with great success; and the success has been greater or less, as the plan adopted embraced more or less of the Aberdeen system. The whole number of ragged schools in the kingdom in 1852, was about 180, with about 20,000 pupils; of these about 4,000 attend industrial classes.

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* The fourth volume entitled the Educator, consisted of the prize essay, written by John Lalor, "On the necessity and means of elevating the social condition of the Educator," and other essays by James Sampson, Rev. E. Higginson, and others.

† The first Ragged School was instituted by John Pounds, a poor cripple in Portsmouth, who, while pursuing his vocation as a shoemaker in a vicious neighborhood near the dock-yards in that town, gathered into a school in his shop, such outcasts as he could by kind word, and needful food, until before his death in 1839, he had instructed over five hundred children who would otherwise have grown up in ignorance, and led lives of vice and crime. He died leaving—

For epitaph, a life well spent,
And mankind, for a monument.

The first reform school was instituted by the Philanthropic Society, in 1788, for criminal and vagrant children in London, which was removed in 1848-9, to Redhill, near Reigate, and farm labor substituted for industrial training in shops. More than 3,000 boys have been admitted, of which number over two-thirds were reclaimed from criminal and vicious habits, and permanently improved. Similar schools have been from time to time formed by other societies with the same object in view, for particular sections of the country; the most successful of which, are the Refuge for the Destitute at Hoxton, and the Warwick County Asylum at Stratton.

The system of discipline and instruction adopted in these professedly reform schools, has been introduced into county gaols, and houses of correction, and with good results, especially into the County House of Correction at Preston, of which Rev. John Clay has been chaplain for many years. The success of these schools and methods of instruction, and the enormous increase of juvenile delinquencies in the large towns of England, induced Parliament in 1836, to make provision for the establishment of a governmental institution for young criminals at Parkhurst, in the Isle of Wight, which was opened in 1839. Although the system of discipline adopted, partook too much of that of a prison, and the industrial training was confined almost exclusively to shop labor, in which large numbers were employed together on the silent system, and the reformatory results were not, in consequence, so satisfactory as in institutions conducted on the Family and Farm School plan at Mettray, in France, and other places on the continent, still enough has been done, to awaken a desire and determination to extend and improve all existing means, not only of reforming, but of preventing the growth of juvenile destitution and crime. Committees of Parliament, and conferences of those interested, have taken the subject into serious consideration, and there is now reasonable ground to believe that efficient steps will be taken to improve the physical condition and homes of the poor generally, to establish infant and elementary schools in the "infested districts" of large towns, to infuse the industrial and religious element into elementary schools for all classes, and above all to infuse the law of kindness, and restore the affections and relations of the family among those in whom, by the accident of birth, these affections and relations have been extinguished or perverted.

Schools of the same general character under the name of Schools of Industry, not only for vagrant children, and in connection with prisons for juvenile offenders, but for children of the poor and laboring classes generally, had been previously established. One of the earliest was instituted by Mr. Joseph Allen, in Linfield, and another at Ealing Grove, by Lady Byron, in which the regular occupation of the pupils in shop, garden, and farm labor, is found to be both economical, and highly conducive to their intellectual and moral culture.

In 1840, the Poor Law Commissioners, reported the extraordinary fact that there were 64,570 children in the workhouses of England, under 16 years of age, and 58,835 between the ages of 2 and 16. These children were chiefly orphans, illigitimate, or deserted, or the childern of persons physically or mentally incapable to discharge the duties of guardianship. From the wretched system of providing for the education and industrial habits of this class of children, it was ascertained by inquiries conducted by Mr. Hickson, into the previous history of the inmates of gaols, that both crime and pauperism recruited their ranks to a large extent from the workhouses. Mr. Hickson urged the immediate establishment of District Industrial Schools for workhouse children, and of wholly separating them from the contaminating influence of adult pauperism. The experiment was commenced at Norwood, in 1836, by Mr. Aubin, with over 1,000 children of all ages under fifteen, and was continued and perfected by him, under the superintendence of Dr. Kay, the assistant Poor Law Commissioner for the Metropolitan District. The success of the enterprise was such as to induce Parliament in 1846, to provide for the formation of school districts or Parochial Unions, within which all the pauper children should be collected into district schools, to be trained to industrious habits, and instructed in such useful knowledge as is suitable to their condition. To carry out this plan, the sum of £30,000 ($150,000) was voted in 1847, for the salaries of schoolmasters in these schools, and the government has since erected a Normal School,* at Twickenham, twelve miles out of London, for the special purpose of training teachers for workhouse and reform schools, at an expense of over £41,000 ($200,000.) The good influence of these improved schools is already felt, and that influence will be increased as soon as better trained teachers are introduced into all the workhouse, district, and reform schools of the kingdom. There are now over five hundred workhouse, and district schools under the charge of the Poor Law Commissioners in which there are nearly one thousand teachers employed.

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* For a description of Kneller-Hall Training School, see page 791, *et. seq.*

The beneficial results of introducing drawing into the evening classes, and day schools of the Mechanic Institutions and the acknowledged dependence of English manufactures in ornamental work on the taste and invention of neighboring countries in consequence of the special education provided by the government of these countries, for all who obtain employment in the various branches of artistic manufacture—induced the government to establish, in 1837, Schools of Design—a central school at Somerset House in London, and provincial schools in several of the principal manufacturing towns; and an annual grant of about $30,000 was made towards their support. The government in 1852, extended its plan so as to aid in giving elementary instruction in the arts of drawing and modeling, in any class or grade of educational institutions, which will conform to the regulations of the Board of Trade, by whom the parliamentary grant is expended.

In 1847, the "Lancashire Public School Association," was formed at Manchester, and promulgated a plan for establishing schools for the county upon the basis of local representation and taxation, and non-interference with religious instruction. The objects of the association were set forth in public addresses, pamphlets, and newspapers, until the local agitation expanded into a national movement. A conference was held at Manchester on the 30th October, 1851, at which over 2,000 persons, many of them delegates from different parts of the kingdom, were present when it was agreed to convert the Lancashire Society into a "National Public School Association, to promote the establishment, by law, in England and Wales, of a system of free schools, which, supported by local rates,[*] and managed by local committees, especially elected for that purpose by the rate-payers, shall impart *secular* instruction only; leaving to parents, guardians, and religious teachers, the inculcation of doctrinal religion, to afford opportunities for which, it is proposed that the schools shall be closed at stated times in each week." Both the county and national association have been instrumental in bringing before the public mind of England the right and duty of taxation, by the people themselves, for the support of a system of public education, and of subjecting schools established under authority of law, and aided by parliamentary grant, or local taxation, to the management of such officers as the people may elect, whether of the clergy or laity.

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[*] At this meeting a letter was read from Edward Lombe, Esq., the owner of an estate of 15,000 acres in the neighborhood of Norwich, transmitting a draft for £500 ($2,500) "in aid of the objects of the association—the protestant right of private-judgment in matters of religion, and the old Saxon right of local representation—

The holiest cause of pen or sword,
That mortal ever lost or gained."

The principles asserted by the association will be embodied in the report of a select committee of the House of Commons appointed to consider a bill to promote education in Manchester and Salford. The bill on which the committee was raised, was not introduced by the association, but as a substitute for it, by parties which are in favor of extending and improving the plan of governmental aid and inspection to schools in connection with religious communions now in operation.

IV. The first movement in parliament toward a system of national education, was made in 1807, by Mr. Whitbread who introduced a bill into the House of Commons to establish a school in each parish for poor children, between the ages of seven and fourteen. The bill met with no favor.

On the 21st of May, 1816, Mr. (now Lord) Brougham, a member of Winchelsea moved for the appointment of a select committee of the House of Commons "to inquire into the state of education of the lower orders of the metropolis," and to consider what may be fit to be done with respect to the children of paupers who shall be found begging in the streets, or whose parents have not sent such children to any of the schools provided for the education of the poor. Mr. Brougham had already taken an active interest in the educational movements of the day. So early as 1808, he had assisted in extending the institution of Mr. Lancaster, and in organizing the British and Foreign School Society, and had contributed two very able articles to the Edinburgh Review in 1810, and 1812, on the education of the poor, and in vindication of the methods of Lancaster, and the plan on which that society was proceeding in establishing schools without any religious test. He entered on the business of the committee with so much zeal and industry as to be able to submit a report on the 19th of June, which was followed by four additional reports—by which a flood of light was thrown on the educational destitution of the metropolis, on the inefficient manner in which many public schools were conducted, and the misapplications of funds destined to education. In 1818, the committee was revived with more extensive powers, which enabled it to inquire into the education of "the lower orders" through the whole of England and Scotland, and by construction, into educational charities generally, including the universities and great public schools. This committee addressed circulars to every parish in England, Scotland, and Wales, by which materials were collected for a statistical exhibit, filling three folio volumes, of the state of education in the whole kingdom. The labors of this committee were closed by presenting a plan for national education, countenanced and supported by the State, in which an attempt was made to accomodate the new system to the existing order of things, so as to improve and confirm schools already established, and harmonize the administration of schools composed of children of all denominations with a conceded deference to the authority of the church of England. The bills embodying this plan were introduced in 1820, and were lost between the conflicting jealousies, selfishness, and hatred of ecclesiastical authorities, and professing religious communions—and the whole subject was postponed for nearly fifteen years before its consideration was again resumed in the English parliament.

Mr. Brougham was more immediately successful in his attempts to induce parliament to turn its attention to the abuses of educational charities. The reports of the committee appointed in 1816 and 1818, had brought to light a great body of curious and interesting information respecting the state and conduct of many schools founded by charitable persons in and near the metropolis. At the close of the session in 1818, he brought in a bill for the appointment of a commission to inquire into charities in England for the education of the poor. The disclosures of the committees on education had excited a public jealousy, which no device of persons interested in maintaining venerable abuses, could lull or elude; and although the field of inquiry was at first narrowed down to a particular class of endowments, a commission was appointed, which has been continued, enlarged, and renewed, until their reports fill thirty folio volumes, and cover 28,840 charities; and the work is not yet done. The total value of these charities reported on, is estimated at £75,000,000, and the annual income at £1,209,395. By the publicity already given to the management of these charities, the income has been increased, and it is calculated that by the improved system of administration, this income can, be raised to £4,000,000—or $20,000,000, a large portion of which, can by act of parliament, without any violence to the will, but in the spirit of the original devises, be appropriated to promote the education of the people.

The year 1833 was signalized by an Education Inquiry, undertaken on motion of Lord Kerry, into the existing means of education for the poorer classes; and an annual grant[*] of £20,000, voted by the House of Commons on motion of Lord Althorpe, for the building of school-houses in England and Wales, under the direction of the Lords of the treasury. This sum was applied by the treasury in aid of private subscriptions for the erection of schools for the education of poor children, in connection with the National Society, and the British and Foreign School Society.

In 1834, a select committee was appointed by the Commons "to make inquiries into the present state of education in England and Wales, and into the application and effects of the grant made in the last session for the erection of school-houses, and to consider the expediency of further grants in aid of education." This committee reported the minutes of evidence taken before them, respecting schools in connection with the two great societies, and the school system of Prussia, Ireland, Scotland, France, together with the views of distinguished educationists, such as Lord Brougham, Dr. Julius, Prof. Pillans, and others.

In 1835 Lord Brougham brought the subject of national education before the House of Lords, by moving a series of resolutions, which contemplated among other things the encouragement of infant schools, the establishment of seminaries, where good teachers might be trained, and the appointment of a board of commissioners, to establish and superintend the teachers' seminaries, and the just application of the funds voted by parliament for the promotion of education, and for the protection of all charitable trusts for the same purpose. The resolutions were read and ably advocated by the mover, but no action was had respecting them. During this year the sum of £10,000 was voted by parliament toward the erection of normal, or model schools.

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[*] A similar grant of £10,000 was voted for the same purpose in Scotland. A grant of £4,228 had been previously made (in 1831) to the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland, which has been gradually increased to the sum of £125.000, in 1851.

In 1836, Lord Brougham brought two bills before the House of Lords, and renewed the same in 1837, embodying the principles set forth in his resolutions of 1835, and providing in addition for a local school committee, to be appointed by the town council in corporate towns, and the voters of the agricultural districts, as well as the imposition of a tax on property by the rate payers. These bills were fully explained and the reasons for their adoption eloquently urged, both in 1837, and in 1838, but without success.

This defeat of his favorite measure, was followed soon after by a published letter to the Duke of Bedford, in which Lord Brougham urges on the friends of an independent system of national education, to unite in support of the measures which the government would soon propose— by which aid would be extended to schools supported by religious denominations, as the only practicable scheme which there was any chance of carrying.

"For the first time we have had the attention of parliament fully directed to the subject of education; attracted, no doubt, by other motives than the mere zeal for popular improvement, led by sectarian animosity, whetted by factious rage, yet still pointed, for whatever reason, to this great question, which, as it never before had obtained any share of parliamentary favor, so, I presume to think, never henceforth can, with its prodigious intrinsic merits, cease to occupy the Legislature, for its own sake, until it is finally and satisfactorily disposed of by some great national measure becoming the law of the land. It is thus that the wisdom of an overruling Providence, bringing general good out of partial evil, orders so as some superficial irritation, some flying ache, shall excite our attention to the deep-seated mischief that is preying upon our vitals, lead us to probe its hidden source, and enable us to apply the needful remedy, long after the superficial feeling that first gave us the warning shall have been passed away and been forgotten. The ignorance of the people, the origin of all the worst ills that prey upon our social system, has become at length the object of Legislative regard; and I defy the constituted authorities of this free country to delay much longer in applying the appropriate cure, by eradicating a disease, as easily cured as it is fatal if neglected.

For do not let it be imagined that ignorance is as harmless now as it was before any men were well informed, or any were misled by half knowledge, and set on to mislead others; in times when, without any change, "one generation passed away and another came up," but the established order of things under which the earth was ruled, seemed as if it abode for ever; when "France before the ark adored and slept." Even in those peaceful days we were taught to believe "that the soul be without knowledge, it is not good." But in our own times, to leave the people uninformed, or half informed, is to leave the edifice of our social system resting upon a quicksand, if its foundation be not rather like the sides of a volcano. Should there, however, be any that deem such apprehensions chimerical, I will come to a very practical view of the matter. I am not inquiring how far the happiness of a rational creature can be secured even in this world, without drawing away his mind from the contemplation of sensual objects, winning over his affections from the taste for gross and groveling indulgence. On that subject, indeed, I have no kind of doubt; but let us come to the more common-place topic of the Gaol Roll, the Assize Calendar. I pretend to prove that, without waiting for the comparatively slow progress of general improvement by the operation of knowledge universally diffused, six or seven years would not elapse before every prison, and every circuit, and every sessions in the country felt the blessed effects of infant schools, if the State did its duty, and took that effectual, that only effectual mode of preventing crime, instead of vainly trusting to the Gibbet, the Convict ship, and the Hulks, for deterring by the force of example,—that feeble, because misapplied force, which operates only on the mind at a moment when the passions are still, and has no more power to quell their tempest, than the rudder has to guide the ship through a hurricane which has torn every sail to rags. If Infant Schools were planted for the training of all children between three and seven years of age, so as to impress them with innocent and virtuous habits, their second natures thus superinduced, would make it as impossible to pervert them, as it is to make men and women of the upper classes rush into the highways each time they feel the want of money.

It is certain, that as things now stand, the two great parties into which the community is unhappily split upon this mighty question, are resolved that we should have no system of education at all,—no National Plan for Training Teachers, and thereby making the schools that stud the country all over, deserve the name they bear,—no national plan for training young children to virtuous habits, and thereby rooting out crimes from the land. And this interdict, under which both parties join in laying their country, is by each pronounced to be necessary for the sacred interests of religion. Of religion! Oh, gracious God! Was ever the name of thy holy ordinances so impiously profaned before? Was ever before, thy best gift to man, his reason, so bewildered by blind bigotry, or savage intolerance, or wild fanaticism—bewildered so as to curse the very light thou hast caused to shine before his steps—bewildered so as not to perceive that any and every religion must flourish best in the tutored mind, and that by whomsoever instructed in secular things, thy word can better be sown in a soil prepared, than in one abandoned through neglect to the execrable influence of the evil Spirit?

Let the people be taught, say I. I care little, in comparison, who is to teach them. Let the grand machine of national education be framed and set to work, and I should even view without alarm the tendency of its first movements toward giving help to the power of the clergy. How? Just as my friend James Watt, when he has constructed some noble steam-engine, which is to bear the trade of England, and with her trade, the light of science and helps of art, into the heart of a distant continent, views without discomposure the piston-rod swerve from the perpendicular, well assured that the contrary flexure of the circles, his illustrious father's exquisite invention, has provided a speedy adjustment; and sees with still less apprehension the divergency of the balls, aware that the yet more refined provision of the same great mind has rendered that very centrifugal force the cause of its own counteraction, and prepared a remedy in exact proportion to the disturbance,—just so should I see unmoved the supposed tendency of a National School Bill to increase clerical ascendancy, being quite sure that the very act of spreading knowledge, which seems to increase the disturbing influence, must, in exact proportion to its own operation, control its evil effects upon our social system.

I know that nothing like a provision has been any where made for infant training, by far the most essential branch of tuition,—the one to provide which is the duty of our rulers, above every other duty imperative upon them, and which, if they discharge not, they forfeit their title to rule. But if they have not discharged that duty, if they have planted no schools where the habits of virtue may be induced, stretched forth no hand to extirpate the germs of vice—they have kept open other schools where vice is taught with never-failing success—used both hands incessantly to stifle the seeds of virtue ere yet they had time to sprout—laid down many a hot-bed where the growth of crime in all its rank luxuriance is assiduously forced. THE INFANT SCHOOL LANGUISHES, which a paternal government would have cherished; but Newgate flourishes—Newgate, with her thousand cells to corrupt their youthful inmates; seducing the guiltless, confirming the depraved. THE INFANT SCHOOL IS CLOSED, which a paternal government would have opened wide to all its children. But the penitentiary, day and night, yawns to engulph the victims of our stepmother system,—the penitentiary where repentance and penance should rather be performed by the real authors of their fall. THE INFANT SCHOOL RECEIVES NO INNOCENTS whom it might train or might hold fast to natural virtue; but the utterly execrable, the altogether abominable hulk, lies moored in the face of the day which it darkens, within sight of the land which it insults, riding on the waters which it stains with every unnatural excess of infernal pollution, triumphant over all morals! And shall civilized, shall free, shall Christian rulers, any longer pause, any more hesitate, before they amend their ways, and attempt, though late yet seriously, to discharge the first of their duties? Or shall we, calling ourselves the friends to human improvement balance any longer, upon some party interest, some sectarian punctilio, or even some refined scruple, when the means are within our reach to redeem the time and do that which is most blessed in the sight of God, most beneficial to man? Or shall it be said that between the claims of contending factions in church or in State, the Legislature stands paralyzed, and puts not forth its hand to save the people placed by Providence under its care, lest offense be given to some of the knots of theologians who bewilder its ears with their noise, as they have bewildered their own brains with their controversies? Lawgivers of England! I charge ye, have a care! Be well assured, that the contempt lavished for centuries upon the cabals of Constantinople, where the council disputed on a text, while the enemy, the derider of all their texts, was thundering at the gate, will be as a token of respect compared with the loud shout of universal scorn which all mankind in all ages will send up against you, if you stand still and suffer a far deadlier foe than the Turcoman,—suffer the parent of all evil, all falsehood, all hypocrisy, all discharity, all self-seeking,—him who covers over with pretexts of conscience the pitfalls that he digs for the souls on which he preys,—to stalk about the fold and lay waste its inmates—stand still and make no head against him, upon the vain pretext, to soothe your indolence, that your action is obstructed by religious cabals—upon the far more guilty speculation, that by playing a party game, you can turn the hatred of conflicting professors, to your selfish purposes!

Let us hope for better things. Let us hope it through His might and under His blessing who commanded the little children to be brought unto Him, and that none of any family of mankind should be forbidden; of Him who has promised the choicest gifts of His Father's kingdom to those who in good earnest love their neighbors as themselves!"

In 1838, Mr. Wyse in the House of Commons made a motion for an address to the Queen, to appoint a Board of Commissioners to provide for the impartial and careful distribution of the government grants, and for the immediate establishment of schools for educating teachers. The motion was lost by only a majority of four against it.

In 1839, in her speech at the opening of the session, the Queen prepared the country to expect some legislation on the subject, by expressing the hope that parliament would do something for the religious education of the people. Before the close of the session, Lord John Russell, in a letter to the president of the Privy Council, communicated the desire of the Queen, that he and four other members of the council, viz., the Lord Privy Seal, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Secretary of State for the Home Department, and the Master of the Mint, should form a Board, or Committee for the consideration of all matters affecting the education of the people.

The Committee of Council on Education were fortunate in their selection of Dr. James Phillip Kay, (now Sir James Kay Shuttleworth) as Secretary. Dr. Kay had early interested himself in improving the condition of the manufacturing population, and in 1832 published an elaborate essay on the "Moral and Physical condition of the working classes employed in the cotton manufacture of Manchester." He was soon after made one of the Assistant Commissioners of the Poor Law Board. While acting in this capacity in the Norfolk or Suffolk district, in 1836, he submitted to that board a report on the evils of the system of apprenticeship education under the old Poor Law, and, in 1838, "a plan for the proper training of pauper children, and on district schools," which was made the basis for a reorganization and improved management of schools for this class of children. In 1839, having been removed to the superintendence of the Metropolitan district, he was specially charged with the improvement of schools in workhouses, and in maturing the school of industry at Norwood, into an example of what district schools for pauper children might become. To accomplish this, Dr. Kay made himself personally acquainted with the best methods of school management and teaching, as practiced in the schools of Scotland, Belgium, Holland, and France, and entered on the difficult task of training up a class of teachers moved by Christian charity to the work of rescuing by an appropriate physical, industrial, intellectual and religious education, the outcast and orphan children, from the mischief wrought by vicious parentage and cruel neglect. This was the origin of the training school at Battersea,* which was sustained until its success was beyond question, mainly, by the personal efforts and large pecuniary sacrifices of its projectors. While maturing the plan of this institution, Dr. Kay was appointed Secretary of the Committee of Council on Education; and to his industry, enthusiasm in the work, and great administrative talents may be attributed the large measure of success which has attended the efforts of that committee to extend and improve the means of elementary education, and especially the system of governmental inspection, and training of teachers in 1843, he assumed the name of Shuttleworth, in consequence of receiving a legacy from a person of that name, and in 1849, on retiring from the office with shattered health, he was knighted by the Queen for his services to the cause of popular education—the first and only instance of honorary distinction conferred for this grade of public service.

Under his able administration the measures of the Committee of Council have been framed, and under his instructions and correspondence, these measures have become almost a system of national education.

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* A full description of the Battersea Training School will be found on page 781, et. seq.

What—and how extensive—these measures of Government for the advancement of education really are, is not, we believe, generally known; we have therefore collected the following particulars in respect to them from the volume of Minutes for the years 1848-9-50, which is now before us. They appear to be framed with a due regard to the rights of conscience and the diversities of religious opinion; and, with a wise and statesmanlike precaution on the part of the Government, to avail itself of local sympathies, and to stimulate voluntary contributions.

1. Aid is offered by these minutes towards the erection of school buildings; and since the year 1839 Government has contributed under this head an aggregate sum of £470,854, towards the erection of 3782 schoolhouses, drawing out, thereby, voluntary contributions to, probably, four times that amount, and affording space for the instruction of 709,000 more children than could before be taught. These grants have been distributed as follows:—

	Amount of Grant.	Number of Schools aided.	Number of Children for whom Accommodation is Provided.
England.........	£399,368	3255	622,823
Scotland	41,563	302	47,814
Wales	27,418	198	33,198
The Islands......	2,505	27	5,165

Eighty-two per cent. of the whole amount granted under this head has been paid to Church-of-England schools.

2. Aid is offered toward the erection of normal schools for the training of teachers or for the improvement of the buildings of such schools; and the total amount thus granted in aid of eighteen normal schools, is £66,450; of which £35,950 is to the Church of England; £12,000 to the British and Foreign School Society and the Wesleyan body; and the rest to the Scotch Church.

3. Aid is offered towards the *maintenance* of such students in these normal schools, as shall appear, on examination, to possess the qualities and attainments likely to make them good teachers, in sums varying from £20 to £30 annually for each student. The total sums so contributed to thirteen training schools were, in the year 1847, £1705; in 1848, £2138; in 1849, £2373.

4. Annual grants are paid in augmentation of the salaries of such teachers of elementary schools as, upon examination, have been judged worthy to receive certificates of merit, such certificates being of three different classes, and the augmentations varying from £15 to £30. The number of teachers so certificated is 681, and the total amount payable annually in augmentation of their salaries £6133.

5. Stipends are allowed to apprentices to the office of teacher, increasing during the five years of their apprenticeship from £10 to £18. The number of schools in which such apprentices have been appointed being 1361, and the number of apprentices, 3581.

6. Provision is made for the instruction of these apprentices by annual payments to the teachers to whom they are apprenticed, being at the rate of £5 annually for one, and £4 for every additional apprentice, their competency to instruct them being tested by annual examinations. The sums payable under the three last heads are stated in the following table:—

Denomination of School.	Number of Schools.	Number of Certificated Teachers.	Number of Apprentices.			Amount conditionally awarded for year ending 31 Oct. 1850.
			Boys.	Girls.	Total.	£ s. d.
National, or Church of England Schools..	973	482	1,638	910	2,593	49,472 10 0
British, Wesleyan, and other Protestant Schools, not connected with the Church of England,	181	69	434	159	593	10,356 10 0
Rom. Cath. Schools..	32	10	46	33	79	1,323 10 0
Schools in Scotland, connected with the established Church,	82	39	161	28	189	3,492 0 0
Schools in Scotland, not connected with the Estab. Church.	93	81	100	27	127	3,467 0 0
Total	1,361	681	2,424	1,157	3,581	68,111 10 0

7. They offer supplies of books, apparatus, and school fittings, at reduced rates, the reduction being effected by the purchase of large quantities at wholesale prices; and by grants to the extent of one-third of these reduced prices. The total reduction thus effected averages sixty-two per cent. on the retail price: and, the total amount of the grants so made by the Government being £6664, it is probable that the retail price of the books, maps, &c., so distributed, is not less than £17,500.

8. They provide for the annual inspection of normal schools, and of all elementary schools in which apprentices are appointed, or which are taught by certificated teachers. Also for the annual examination of apprentices and of candidates for the office of apprentice, and of teachers who are candidates for certificates of merit.

For this purpose they maintain a staff of twenty-one inspectors of schools, —of whom eleven are inspectors of church schools; two of British and Foreign, and Dissenters' schools; and two of Scotch schools; one of Roman Catholic, and five of Workhouse schools. The cost of this inspection, in 1849, for salaries and travelling expenses, was £16,826. The schools at present liable to inspection are 12 normal schools, 4296 elementary schools, and about 700 workhouse schools.

The general result of this action of the Government on the education of the country, *in respect to quantity*, may be gathered from the fact, that in the ten years from 1837 to 1847, the number of children under education in Church schools had increased from 558,180 to 955,865, being an increase of eight elevenths.

It was not, however, so much in respect to the *quantity* of the education of the country, as in regard to its *quality*, that an alteration was needed: and it is in this respect that most has been done. The two questions of quality and quantity have, however, a relation to one another, for a good school is almost always a full one. This relation of the number of the scholars to the quality of the school is strikingly illustrated in the returns made from schools in which certificated teachers and apprentices have been appointed, and which are, therefore, regularly inspected. These schools may be reasonably supposed to have improved from year to year: and it appears that the numbers of children who attend them have, in like manner, steadily advanced. In the first year after these measures came into operation, 1847-8, the total number had thus increased 74·5 per cent.; in the second year, 16·66 per cent. No third year's apprenticeships are yet completed.

The whole question of the quality of the instruction, after all that regulations can do, will be found to be involved in the character of the teacher; for such as is the teacher, such invariably is the school. The first step towards the formation of a more efficient body of teachers was taken by Sir J. P. Kay Shuttleworth and Mr. E. Carleton Tuffnell, when, in the year 1840, they founded a school at Battersea for training Masters for the schools of pauper children,—maintaining it at their private cost, aided by some of their friends. That no personal exertions might be wanting to its success, Sir J. P. Kay Shuttleworth went to reside in it; adding to his duties as Secretary to the Committee of Council on Education the cares and difficulties of a position, in which, surrounded by youths but recently the inmates of workhouses, he sought to lay the foundation of a new and improved state of education throughout the country. This honorable example of private benevolence has been followed by various public bodies. The National Society soon afterwards established St. Mark's College, Chelsea,—an institution for the training of a superior class of Church schoolmasters,—and Whiteland's House School, for the training of mistresses: And within four years of that time there had sprung up no less than seventeen diocesan schools for the training of teachers of Church schools. These are now increased to twenty, of which Chester, York, Durham, Cheltenham, and Caermarthen are the principal. The Battersea school having been transferred to the National Society in 1844, there are now twenty-three or twenty-four training schools in the country for the education of Church schoolmasters.

The existence of these training schools, the people of England and the Church of England owe to the Committee of Council. Their importance is not to be measured by the amount of good they have been able up to this time to do, or are now doing. They are poorly supported; the number of students who attend them is small, not exceeding in the whole from four to five hundred, and the education pursued in them at present appears to be but imperfectly adapted to the formation of the character of the teacher. But our conception of that character is as yet very imperfect in England: and in all that concerns the formation and development of it, we have no experience to guide us. Each of the training schools admits of development; and the State would do well to lend its aid to this end with a more liberal hand (we should say a less sparing hand) than it has hitherto attempted;—respecting, as far as is consistent with guarantees for the proper application of its aid, the independence of each, and allowing them to manifest themselves under that distinctive character towards which they may severally tend. Each, taken with its individuality, might thus become a depositary of local educational sympathies and a centre of local action. And looking to the progress which the whole question of education is making, and to the fact that, whenever the country is properly supplied with parish schools, not less than 2000 students will, probably, require to be kept within the walls of these training schools to supply the vacancies for teachers which will annually arise in Church schools alone, there can be no doubt of the importance of this part of the system.

Far more important, however, than any aid which the Government has yet given to the establishment and maintenance of training schools, is that which it has rendered in providing that candidates shall be properly educated and prepared for admission to them. Nothing has so interfered with the success of such institutions as the impossibility of finding a sufficient number of qualified candidates. The office of the national schoolmaster is but little in repute; and but few persons have, hitherto, been accustomed to seek it, except such as, for the want of sufficient ability, or energy, or industry, have been unsuccessful in other callings, or who labor under infirm health or bodily deformities. These were considered indeed good enough for the purpose; until that inveterate prejudice was got rid of, that education is a privilege of men's social condition, and to be graduated according to it. It is a legitimate deduction from this principle, that a teacher of the lowest standard in attainments and skill is competent to the instruction of children of the lowest class. The converse proposition is to rule the future of education. The education of those children who are the most degraded, intellectually and morally, being the most difficult task,—is to have the highest qualities of the teacher brought to bear upon it.

The three or four thousand pupil teachers, having been selected as the most promising children in the schools in which they have been brought up, and having been apprenticed to the work of the school for five years, and educated under the careful superintendence of the clergy and the inspectors of schools, will when they have completed their apprenticeship, present themselves for admission to the training schools. So selected and so trained from an early age, they cannot fail, after two or three years' residence in them, to form a body of teachers such as have never before entered the field of elementary education in England. The *worst* training of the normal schools cannot mar this result; and we have reason to hope for the *best*. This, then, is the bright future of education. If the apprenticeship of new pupil teachers is continued at the same rate as heretofore, from 1000 to 1500 will annually complete their apprenticeship; and nearly as many will complete annually their training in the normal schools; so that nearly that number of teachers will every year be prepared to enter on the charge of elementary schools.

The following are the conditions annexed to grants:—

1. In respect to grants for the *building* of schools, it is stipulated that the site shall be legally conveyed to trustees, to be used for ever for the purposes of a school.

2. That the buildings should be substantial and well adapted to the uses of a school.

3. That the State, by its inspector, shall have access to the school, to examine and report whether the instruction of the children is duly cared for.

4. To these conditions there have been added, since the year 1848, certain others, well known as 'the Management Clauses;' having for their object to secure to the laity, in all practicable cases, what appears to be a due share in the management of the schools.

5. To grants for the augmentation of teachers' salaries, and for the stipends of pupil teachers, it is made a condition that certain examinations shall be passed, the subjects of examination being specified beforehand. These subjects include, with secular instruction, a detailed course of elementary religious instruction, to be conducted in Church schools in strict accordance with the formularies of the Church of England.

6. To grants for apparatus and books, no other conditions are annexed than that the Committee of Council shall be certified on the report of one of its inspectors, that the assistance is needed; that the books and apparatus sought are proper to the use of the school; and that the teachers are competent to make the proper use of them.

These measures of the Committee of Council appear excellently calculated to promote the interests of education. But the best measures depend for their success upon their execution; and these have been so administered as to secure the cordial acceptance of the various parties locally interested in schools.

These measures were not adopted without encountering the most violent and determined opposition. Even the appointment of the Committee of Council, was denounced in the House of Lords by the Archbishop of Canterbury, who carried an address to the crown, praying for its revocation by a majority of 111 votes; and in the House of Commons, Lord Stanley, the author of the system of national education in Ireland, missed carrying a similar motion in the first instance by five, and on a second occasion by only two votes. Even the continuance in office of Lord Melbourne's administration was periled by his declaration in favor of these measures. By degrees the jealousies and opposition of the different religious communions has been conciliated, and a system of elementary education, under the local direction and support of religious bodies, and the general supervision and pecuniary aid (mainly in the qualification and encouragement of teachers,) of the Committee of Council, has grown up to the proportions represented in the following table:

Denomination of Schools.	Number of Schools.	Number of Pupils.	Total Income.
Church of England Schools...	17,015	955,865	£817,081
British and Foreign do ...	1,500	225,000	161,250
Wesleyan do ...	397	38,623	27,347
Congregational do ...	89	6,839	4,901
Roman Catholic do ...	585	34,750	16,000
Ragged do ...	270	20,000	20,000
Totals..................	19,856	1,281,077	£1,046,579

The following are the educational statistics of England and Wales, gathered from the census of 1851:

Public day schools,..		15,473
Number of persons on the school books,..................	Males,	791,548
	Females,	616,021
	Total,	1,407,569
Attending at the schools on the 31st March, 1851,..........	Males,	635,107
	Females,	480,130
Private day schools, 31st March, 1851,........................		29,425
Number on the school books,..............................	Males,	347,694
	Females,	353,210
Attending on March 31st, 1851,.........................	Males,	317,390
	Females,	322,349

Proportion of scholars on the books to the (1 scholar in 8½ persons) population, 11.76 per cent.

Number of scholars in attendance to school on books, 83⅓ per cent.

The progress of elementary education is exhibited in the following table:

	Day scholars.	Population.	Proportion of Day scholars to Population.
In 1818........	674,883	11,398,167	1 to 17
1833........	1,276,947	14,417,110	1 to 11½
1851........	2,108,473	17,922,768	1 to 8½

Increase of population from 1818 to 1851, 57 per cent.

Increase of day scholars from 1818 to 1851, 212 per cent.

In view of these facts Lord John Russell, and Sir James Kay Shuttleworth, the former in a speech in the House of Commons, and the latter in a volume just published, (1853,) advocate an extension of the measures now in operation, in preference to a system of National Education, based on municipal management and taxation. Sir James thus speaks of the policy of parental contribution in connection with public grants and private subscription.

> A weekly payment from the parents of scholars is that form of taxation, the justice of which is most apparent, to the humbler classes. Every one who has even an elementary knowledge of finance is aware, that no tax can be largely productive from which the great mass of the people are exempt.
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> The moral advantage of a tax on the poor in the form of school pence is, that it appeals to the sense of paternal duty. It enforces a lesson of domestic piety. It establishes the parental authority, and vindicates personal freedom. The child is neither wholly educated by religious charity, nor by the State. He owes to his parents that honor and obedience, which are the sources of domestic tranquillity, and to which the promise of long life is attached. Let no one rudely interfere with the bonds of filial reverence and affection. Especially is it the interest of the State to make these the primal elements of social order. Nor can the paternal charities of a wise commonwealth be substituted for the personal ties of parental love and esteem, without undermining society at its base.
>
> The parent should not be led to regard the school as the privilege of the citizen, so much as another scene of household duty. Those communities are neither most prosperous, nor most happy, in which the political or social relations of the family are more prominent than the domestic. That which happily distinguishes the Saxon and Teutonic races is, the prevalence of the idea of "*home.*" To make the households of the poor, scenes of Christian peace, is the first object of the school. Why then should we substitute its external relations for its internal—the idea of the citizen, for that of the parent—the sense of political or social rights, for those of domestic duties—the claim of public privilege, for the personal law of conscience?

Parliament has not been entirely neglectful of the education, as well as the health of children employed in factories. The first act in their behalf was passed in 1802. This proving insufficient, other provisions were adopted from time to time, after very minute inquiries into the condition of this class of children, and protracted contests in parliament, until by the law as it now stands, every child (between the ages of 8 and 13 years) employed in a factory, must attend school *three hours* every day, between the hours of eight o'clock in the morning, and six o'clock in the afternoon. The person, whether parent or employer, who receives any direct benefit from the wages of a child, must take care that the child attend; and to show that this attendance is regular, the employer must obtain from the schoolmaster, on Monday of every week, a certificate in a form prescribed by the statute, showing the number of hours the child was at school on each day of the week previous. This certificate must be preserved for six months, and produced to an inspector on demand. The law imposes a fine for every case of neglect on the part of the employer. Inspectors are appointed by the Home Office, to visit factories and schools, with full powers to examine any person upon oath on the premises, employ surgeons to examine into the condition and arrangements for health, to cause defective machinery to be repaired, to set up a school for factory children, where none exist, and to report annually, and when required to the Home office.

Among the resplendent names of modern English literature, Thomas Babbington Macauley and Thomas Carlyle stand preeminent, and in their writings, both Mr. Macauley and Mr. Carlyle appear the earnest advocates of popular education.

In his place in the House of Commons, in 1847, Mr. Macauley came forward to defend the minutes of the Committee of Council on Education, to which, as Member of the Privy Council, he had given his assent.

> I hold that it is the right and duty of the State to provide for the education of the common people. I conceive the arguments by which this position may be proved are perfectly simple, perfectly obvious, and the most cogent possible. * * * All are agreed that it is the sacred duty of every government to take effectual measures for securing the persons and property of the community; and that the government which neglects that duty is unfit for its situation. This being once admitted, I ask, can it be denied that the education of the common people is the most effectual means of protecting persons and property? On that subject I can not refer to higher authority, or use more strong terms, than have been employed by Adam Smith; and I take his authority the more readily, because he is not very friendly to State interference; and almost on the same page as that I refer to, he declares that the State ought not to meddle with the education of the higher orders; but he distinctly says that there is a difference, particularly in a highly civilized and commercial community, between the education of the higher classes and the education of the poor. The education of the poor he pronounces to be a matter in which government is most deeply concerned; and he compares ignorance, spread through the lower classes, neglected by the State, to a leprosy, or some other fearful disease, and says that where this duty is neglected, the State is in danger of falling into the terrible disorder. He had scarcely written this than the axiom was fearfully illustrated in the riots of 1780. I do not know if from all history I could select a stronger instance of my position, when I say that ignorance makes the persons and property of the community unsafe, and that the government is bound to take measures to prevent that ignorance. On that occasion, what was the state of things? Without any shadow of a grievance, at the summons of a madman, 100,000 men rising in insurrection—a week of anarchy—Parliament beseiged—your predecessor, sir, trembling in the Chair—the Lords pulled out of their coaches—the Bishops flying over the tiles—not a sight, I trust, that would be pleasurable even to those who are now so unfavorable to the church of England—thirty-six fires blazing at once in London—the house of the Chief Justice sacked—the children of the Prime Minister taken out of their beds in their night clothes, and laid on the table of the horse guards—and all this the effect of nothing but the gross, brutish ignorance of the population, who had been left brutes in the midst of Christianity, savages in the midst of civilization. Nor is this the only occasion when similar results have followed from the same cause. To this cause are attributable all the outrages of the Bristol and Nottingham riots, and all the misdeeds of General Rock and Captain Swing; incendiary fires in some district, and in others riots against machinery, tending more than anything else to degrade men to the level of the inferior animals. Could it have been supposed that all this could have taken place in a community were even the common laborer to have his mind opened by education, and be taught to find his pleasure in the exercise of his intellect, taught to revere his Maker, taught to regard his fellow-creatures with kindness, and taught likewise to feel respect for legitimate authority, taught how to pursue redress of real wrongs by constitutional methods? * * * Take away education, and what are your means? Military force, prisons, solitary cells, penal colonies, gibbets—all the other apparatus of penal laws. If, then, there be an end to which government is bound to attain—if there are two ways only of attaining it—if one of those ways is by elevating the moral and intellectual character of the people, and if the other way is by inflicting pain, who can doubt which way every government ought to take? It seems to me that no proposition can be more strange than this—that the State ought to have power to punish and is bound to punish its subjects for not knowing their duty, but at the same time is to take no step to let them know what their duty is.

I say, therefore, that the education of the people ought to be the first concern of a State, not only because it is an efficient means of promoting and obtaining that which all allow to be the main end of government, but because it is the most efficient, the most humane, the most civilized, and in all respects the best means of attaining that end. This is my deliberate conviction; and in this opinion I am fortified by thinking that it is also the opinion of all the great legislators, of all the great statesmen, of all the great political philosophers of all ages and of all nations, even including those whose general opinion is, and has ever been, to restrict the functions of government. Sir, it is the opinion of all the greatest champions of civil and religious liberty in the old world and in the new; and of none—I hesitate not to say it—more emphatically than of those whose names are held in the highest estimation by the Protestant Nonconformists of England. Assuredly if there be any class of men whom the Protestant Nonconformists of England respect more highly than another—if any whose memory they hold in deeper veneration—it is that class of men, of high spirit and unconquerable principles, who in the days of Archbishop Laud preferred leaving their native country, and living in the savage solitudes of a wilderness, rather than to live in a land of prosperity and plenty, where they could not enjoy the privilege of worshipping their Maker freely according to the dictates of their conscience. Those men, illustrious for ever in history, were the founders of the commonwealth of Massachusetts; but though their love of freedom of conscience was illimitable and indestructible, they could see nothing servile or degrading in the principle that the State should take upon itself the charge of the education of the people. In the year 1642 they passed their first legislative enactment on this subject, in the preamble of which they distinctly pledged themselves to this principle, that education was a matter of the deepest possible importance and the greatest possible interest to all nations and to all communities, and that as such it was, in an eminent degree, deserving of the peculiar attention of the State. I have peculiar satisfaction in referring to the case of America, because those who are the most enthusiastic advocates of the voluntary principle in matters of religion, turn fondly to that land as affording the best illustration that can be any where found of the successful operation of that principle. And yet what do we find to be the principle of America and of all the greatest men that she has produced upon the question? "Educate the people," was the first admonition addressed by Penn to the commonwealth he founded—"educate the people" was the last legacy of Washington to the republic of the United States—"educate the people" was the unceasing exhortation of Jefferson. Yes, of Jefferson himself; and I quote his authority with peculiar favor; for of all the eminent public men that the world ever saw, he was the one whose greatest delight it was to pare down the functions of governments to the lowest possible point, and to leave the freest possible scope for the exercise of individual exertion. Such was the disposition—such, indeed, might be said to be the mission of Jefferson; and yet the latter portion of his life was devoted with ceaseless energy to the effort to procure the blessing of a State education for Virginia. And against the concurrent testimony of all these great authorities, what have you, who take the opposite side, to show? * * * Institutions for the education of the people are on every ground the very description of institutions which the government, as the guardians of the people's bests interests, are bound to interfere with. This point has been powerfully put by Mr. David Hume. * * * After laying down very emphatically the general principle of non-interference and free competition, Mr. Hume goes on to make the admission that there undoubtedly may be and are some very useful and necessary matters which do not give that degree of advantage to any man that they can be safely left to individuals. Such matters, he says, must be effected by money, or by distinctions, or by both. Now, sir, if there ever was a case to which that description faithfully and accurately applies, I maintain that it is to the calling of the schoolmaster in England. That his calling is a necessary and an useful one, is clear; and yet it is equally clear that he does not obtain, and can not obtain, adequate remuneration without an interference on the part of government. Here, then, we have the precise case, if we are to adopt the illustration of Hume, in which the government ought to interfere. Reasoning *à priori*, the principle of free competition is not sufficient of itself, and can not supply a good education. Let us look at the facts. What is the existing state in England? There has, for years, been nothing except the principle of non-interference. If, therefore, the principle of free competition were in reality a principle of the same potency in education as we all admit it to be in matters of trade, we ought to see education as prosperous under this system of free competition as trade itself is. If we could by possibility have had the principle of free competition fairly tried in any country, it would be in our own. It has been tried for a long time with perfect liberty in the richest country under the heavens, and where the people are not unfriendly to it. If the principle of free competition could show itself sufficient, it ought to be here; our schools ought to be the models of common schools; the people who have been educated in them ought to show the most perfect intelligence; every school ought to have its excellent little library, and its mechanical apparatus; and, instead of there being such a thing as a grown person being unable to read or to write, such an individual ought to be one at whom the people would stare, and who should be noted in the newspapers; while the schoolmaster ought to be as well acquainted with his important duties as the cutler with knives, or the engineer with machinery; moreover, he ought to be amply remunerated, and the highest respect of the public ought to be extended to him. Now, is this the truth? Look at the charges of the judges, at the resolutions of the grand juries, and at the reports made to every public department that has any thing to do with education. Take the reports of the inspectors of prisons. In Hertford House of Correction, out of 700 prisoners, about half were unable to read, and only eight could read and write well. In Maidstone jail, out of 8,000 prisoners, 1,300 were unable to read, and only fifty were able to read and write well. In Coldbath-fields, out of 8,000, it is not said that one could read and write well. If we turn from the reports of the inspectors of prisons to the registers of marriages, we find that there were nearly 130,000 couples married in the year 1844, and of those more than 40,000 of the bridegrooms and more than 60,000 of the brides could not sign their names, but made their marks. Therefore one third of the men and one half of the women, who are supposed to be in the prime of life, and who are destined to be the parents of the next generation, can not sign their names. What does this imply? The most grievous want of education. * * * And it is said, that if we only wait with patience, the principle of free competition will do all that is necessary for education. We have been waiting with patience since the Heptarchy. How much longer are we to wait? Are we to wait till 2,847, or till 3,847? Will you wait till patience is exhausted? Can you say that the experiment which has been tried with so little effect has been tried under unfavorable circumstances? has it been tried on a small scale, or for a short period? You can say none of these things. * * * It was at the end of the 17th century that Fletcher of Saltoun, a brave and able man, who fought and suffered for liberty, was so overwhelmed with the spectacle of misery his country presented, that he actually published a pamphlet, in which he proposed the institution of personal slavery in Scotland as the only way to compel the common people to work. Within two months after the appearance of the pamphlet of Fletcher, the Parliament of Scotland passed in 1696, an act for the settlement of schools. Has the whole world given us such an instance of improvement as that which took place at the beginning of the 18th century? In a short time, in spite of the inclemency of the air and the sterility of the soil, Scotland became a country which had no reason to envy any part of the world, however richly gifted by nature; and remember that Scotchmen did this, and that wherever a Scotchman went—and there were few places he did not go to—he carried with him signs of the moral and intellectual cultivation he had received. If he had a shop, he had the best trade in the street; if he enlisted in the army, he soon became a non-commissioned officer. Not that the Scotchman changed; there was no change in the man, for a hundred years before, Scotchmen of the lower classes were spoken of in London as you speak of the Esquimaux; but such was the difference when this system of State education had been in force for only one generation; the language of contempt was at an end, and that of envy succeeded. Then the complaint was, that wherever the Scotchman came he got more than his share; that when he mixed with Englishmen and Irishmen, he rose as regularly to the top as oil rises on water. * * * Under this system of State education, whatever were its defects, Scotland rose and prospered to such a degree that I do not believe a single person, even of those who now most loudly proclaim their abhorrence of State education, would venture to say that Scotland would have become the free, civilized country it is, if the education of her people had been left to free competition without any interference on the part of the State. Then how does this argument stand? I doubt whether it be possible to find, if there be any meaning in the science of induction as applied to politics, any instance of an experiment tried so fully and so fairly, tried with all the conditions which Lord Bacon has laid down in his *Novum Organon*, and of which the result was so evident. Observe, you take these two countries so closely resembling each other in many particulars—in one of these two countries, by far the richer of the two, and better able to get on with free competition, you have free competition; and what is the result? The Congregational Union tell you that it is a result, indeed, to make us ashamed, and every enlightened foreigner that comes amongst us, sad. In the other country, little favored by nature, you find a system of State education—not a perfect one, but still an efficient one—and the result is an evident and rapid improvement in the moral and intellectual character of the people, and a consequent improvement in security and in prosperity such as was hardly ever seen before in the world. If this had been the case in surgery or in chemistry, and such experiments and results had been laid before you, would it be possible for you not to see which was the wrong course and which the right? These arguments have most fully convinced me of a truth which I shall not shrink from proclaiming in the face of any clamor that may be raised against it—that it is the duty of the State to educate the common people.

Mr. Carlyle has uttered many indignant rebukes of the niggardly policy of the English government in respect to the education of the people.

Who would suppose that education were a thing which had to be advocated on the ground of local expediency, or indeed on any ground? As if it stood not on the basis of everlasting duty, as a prime necessity of man. It is a thing that should need no advocating; much as it does actually need. To impart the gift of thinking to those who can not think, and yet who could in that case think; this, one would imagine, was the first function a government had to set about discharging. Were it not a cruel thing to see, in any province of an empire, the inhabitants living all mutilated in their limbs, each strong man with his right arm lamed? How much crueller to find the strong soul, with his eyes still sealed, its eyes extinct, so that it sees not! Light has come into the world, but to this poor peasant, it has come in vain. For six thousand years, the sons of Adam, in sleepless effort, have been devising, doing, discovering, in mysterious, infinite indissoluble communion, warring, a little band of brothers, against the great black empire of necessity and night; they have accomplished such a conquest and conquests; and to this man it is all as if it had not been. The four and twenty letters of the alphabet are still Runic enigmas to him. He passes by on the other side; and that great spiritual kingdom, the toil-worn conquest of his own brothers, all that his brothers have conquered, is a thing non-extant for him; an invisible empire; he knows it not; suspects it not. And is it not his withal; the conquest of his own brothers, the lawfully acquired possession of all men? Baleful enchantment lies over him from generation to generation; he knows not that such an empire is his, that such an empire is at all? O, what are bills of rights, emancipations of black slaves into black apprentices, lawsuits in chancery for some short usufruct of a bit of land? The grand "seed-field of time" is this man's, and you give it him not. Time's seed-field, which includes the earth and all her seed-fields and pearl-oceans, nay her sowers too and pearl-divers, all that was wise and heroic and victorious here below; of which the earth's centuries are but furrows, for it stretches forth from the beginning onward even unto this day!

"My inheritance, how lordly, wide and fair;
Time is my fair seed-field, to time I'm heir!"

Heavier wrong is not done under the sun. It lasts from year to year, from century to century; the blinded sire slaves himself out, and leaves a blinded son; and men, made in the image of God, continue as two legged beasts of labor; and in the largest empire of the world, it is a debate whether a small fraction of the revenue of one day (30,000*l.* is but that) shall, after thirteen centuries, be laid out on it, or not laid out on it.

NORMAL SCHOOLS, OR TRAINING COLLEGES

IN

ENGLAND AND WALES.

The germ of all the institutions for training teachers for elementary schools in England, must be found in the model school, and teachers' class of the British and Foreign School Society in the Borough-road, London. So early as 1805, the "training of schoolmasters," in the methods of this school, was made the ground of a subscription in its behalf, and in 1808, it was set forth as one of the cardinal objects of the society. From that time, persons have been admitted every year to the school to observe, learn, and practice the methods of classification and instruction pursued there. Its accommodations as a normal school were insufficient even on the plan of observation and practice pursued there, until 1842, when the present building was completed at an expense of £21,433, toward which the Committee of Council extended a grant of £5,000. In the mean time, the national society was pursuing a similar plan in its model school at Westminster; and the necessity of training well qualified teachers by means of a special course of instruction and practice was ably discussed, and the mode and results of such training as exhibited on the continent, and especially in Prussia, were ably advocated in parliament, pamphlets, reviews, and the daily press. The Quarterly Journal of Education, and the publications of the Central Society of Education, and especially the Prize Essay of Mr. Lalor, set forth this necessity, and the experience of other countries in a very able manner. Lord Brougham, in his whole public life the early and eloquent advocate of popular education, in a speech in the House of Lords on the education of the people on the 23d May, 1835, remarked—"These seminaries for training masters are an invaluable gift to mankind and lead to the indefinite improvement of education. It is this which above all things we ought to labor to introduce into our system. * * Place normal schools—seminaries for training teachers, in few such places as London, York, Liverpool, Durham, and Exeter, and you will yearly qualify five hundred persons fitted for diffusing a perfect system of instruction all over the country. These training seminaries will not only teach the masters the branches of learning and science in which they are now deficient, but will teach them what they know far less, the didactic art—the mode of imparting the knowledge they have, or may acquire—the best method of training and dealing with children, in all that regards temper, capacity, and habits, and the means of stirring them to exertion, and controlling their aberrations." The speaker, although he failed in this, as well as in former, and subsequent efforts in parliament, to establish a system of national education, according to his own views, has lived long enough to see thirty-six normal schools, or training colleges in England and Wales, four in Scotland, and one in Ireland, in successful operation; and both the quantity and quality of elementary instruction greatly improved. These results have been realized mainly through the action of the Board, or Committee of Council on Education, first appointed in 1839.

One of the first objects proposed for the consideration of the Board, was a normal, or model school, in organizing which they were advised that "it is her Majesty's wish, that the youth of this kingdom should be religiously brought up, and that the right of conscience should be respected." The committee experienced so much difficulty in devising the plan of a normal school, under their direction, and in reconciling conflicting views of religious communions, that the subject was postponed, and the sum of £10,000 granted by parliament in 1835 towards the erection of such school, was distributed in equal proportions to the National Society, and the British and Foreign School Society, to be applied by them for this purpose.

With the aid of this grant, the British and Foreign School Society proceeded to provide suitable accommodations for a class of eighty normal pupils, in connection with the model schools in the Borough-road. The building was completed in 1842 at an expense of £21,433. The National Society commenced in 1840, the erection of a training college for seventy-four masters of schools in connection with that society at Stanley Grove in Chelsea, two miles from Hyde Park Corner. The building was completed in 1842, at an expense of £23,651. In the meantime, Dr. James Phillips Kay, Secretary of the Committee of Council on Education, and E. C. Tufnel, Esq., Assistant Poor Law Commissioner, commenced at Battersea a Training School, to supply schools of industry for pauper children and reformatory schools for juvenile criminals with properly qualified teachers, and at the same time to give an example of normal education, comprising the formation of character, the development of the intelligence, appropriate technical instruction, and the acquisition of method and practical skill in conducting an elementary school. The founders commenced their labors in 1840, and in 1843, after the methods and results had received the repeated, and emphatic commendation of the Queen's inspectors, they transferred the institution to the management of the National Society.

The success of these experiments, dissipated the vague apprehensions, which the first announcement of normal schools, as a foreign institution had created, and inspired general confidence in their tendencies, and conviction of their necessities. The different religious communions, by whose exertions and jealousies, the plan of the Committee of Council, had been defeated in 1839, now came forward to found Training Colleges for teachers of schools in their several connections. The Committee of Council encouraged the erection of suitable buildings by grants of money, and contributed toward their support and usefulness by the extablishment of the system of pupil teachers, and Queen's scholarships by which young men and young women of the right character as prepared for these institutions, and enabled to remain in them for a sufficient length of time to profit by the extended course of instruction, and practice prescribed.

To stimulate and aid the elementary schools, and to prepare pupils for the Training Schools, stipends from £10 to £18, increasing from year to year for five years, are allowed to a certain number of the most vigorous intelligent, well-behaved and proficient scholars in any school, subject to the inspection of the government, who shall pass in a satisfactory manner, the examination prescribed by the Committee of Council, for an apprenticeship to the office of teaching. These *pupil teachers*, as they are called, receive daily one hour and a half of separate instruction from the master of the schools, to which they belong, (who receives an annual addition to his salary according to the number of such pupils besides spending about the same period in diligent preparation; and during five hours each day, are familiarized with the management and instruction of an elementary school, by having charge of one of its classes. After spending five years in this way, and passing satisfactorily the annual written and oral examination on subjects presented by the committee, these pupil teachers are then allowed to enter on a vigorous competition for admission in any of the Training Schools, as *Queen's scholars*. In all of the Training Schools, aided and inspected by the Committee of Council, the government allows £25 for the first year, £20 for the second, and £30 for the third year, towards the cost of maintenance and education of a given number of pupil teachers who can pass in a satisfactory manner the examination prescribed by the committee. Each Training School receives a grant, varying from £20 to £30 on each Queen scholar instructed during the year. To each graduate of a Training College, who shall pass a satisfactory examination, a *certificate of merit* is awarded, which entitles the holder to a stipend, varying from £20 to £30 a year, in augmentation of the salaries, which they may receive as teachers of elementary schools. The subjects and method of examination, and the standard of attainments required, are determined by the committee; and the examination papers are prepared by the inspectors of the Training Schools, and revised at a conference of all the inspectors of schools, over which the secretary presides. This system of an annual and strict examination, and of an annual grant to deserving pupils to aid them in obtaining the requisite knowledge of the principles and practice of teaching, before entering on the responsibilities of a school, and of rewarding afterwards, those who prove faithful and successful, is changing the whole aspect of elementary education in England. The full results will not be seen, until after the 5,000 pupil teachers, who have served an apprenticeship of five years in the best elementary schools of the kingdom, have spent three years in the Training Colleges, and having gained the certificates of merit, are actively engaged as teachers.

In 1852, there were thirty-four Normal Schools or Training Colleges in England and Wales, erected at an expense in building alone of over £350,000, of which sum the government contributed about one half. These institutions provide the means of residence for about 1,000 males and seven hundred females at an annual outlay of about £80,000, of which the government will contribute, in grants for Queen's scholars, about one half.

These institutions are now sending abroad such schoolmasters, as Lord Brougham alluded to in his famous declaration on the omnipotence of popular intelligence—"Let the soldier be abroad if he will; he can do nothing in this age. There is another personage abroad, a person less imposing,—in the eyes of some, perhaps insignificant. THE SCHOOL MASTER IS ABROAD; and I trust to him armed with his primer, against the soldier in full uniform array." On another occasion, the same speaker glorifies the mission of the schoolmaster: "We are called schoolmasters,—a title in which I glory, and never shall feel shame." * * But there is nothing which these adversaries of improvement are more wont to make themselves merry with, than what is termed the "*march of intellect;*" and here I will confess that I think, as far as the phrase goes, they are in the right. It is little calculated to describe the operation in question. It does not picture an image at all resembling the proceeding of the true friends of mankind. It much more resembles the progress of the enemy to all improvement. The conqueror moves in a march. He stalks onward with the "pride, pomp, and circumstance of war," banners flying, shouts rending the air, guns thundering, and martial music pealing, to drown the shrieks of the wounded and the lamentations for the slain. Not thus the schoolmaster in his peaceful vocation. He meditates and prepares in secret the plans which are to bless mankind; he slowly gathers round him those who are to further their execution; he quietly, though firmly, advances in his humble path, laboring steadily, but calmly, till he has opened to the light all the recesses of ignorance, and torn up by the roots the weeds of vice. His is a progress not to be compared with any thing like a march; but it leads to a far more brilliant triumph, and to laurels more imperishable than the destroyer of his species, the scourge of the world ever won.

Such men,—men deserving the glorious title of teachers of mankind, I have found laboring conscientiously, though perhaps obscurely, in their blessed vocation, wherever I have gone. I have found them, and shared their fellowship, among the daring, the ambitious, the ardent, the indomitably active French; I have found them among the persevering, resolute, industrious Swiss; I have found them among the laborious, the warm-hearted, the enthusiastic Germans; I have found them among the high-minded but enslaved Italians; and in our own country, God be thanked, their numbers every where abound, and are every day increasing. Their calling is high and holy; their fame is the property of nations; their renown fill the earth in after ages, in proportion as it sounds not far off in their own times. Each one of these great teachers of the world, possessing his soul in peace, performs his appointed course, awaits in patience the fulfillment of the promises, resting from his labors, bequeathes his memory to the generation whom his works have blessed, and sleeps under the humble, but not inglorious epitaph, commemorating "one in whom mankind lost a friend, and no man got rid of an enemy!"

In Scotland, the first attempt to train teachers in the principles and practice of their art, was made by the Education Committee of the Church of Scotland, in 1826, by placing a few teachers appointed to their schools in the Highlands, for a short course of observation, instruction and practice, in one of their best conducted schools in Edinburgh. This plan was enlarged and improved in 1838; and in 1846, a building was erected for a Normal School in Castle Place, in Edinburgh, at an expense of £10,000. In the mean time, Mr. Snow, in 1836, commenced at Glasgow, a similar enterprise at his own risk to exemplify, and finally, to train teachers on a system of instruction somewhat peculiar. He was subsequently aided by a voluntary society, and finally the building was completed by the General Assembly Committee in 1840. The disruption of the church of Scotland, and the organization of the free church, has led to the establishment of two other Normal Schools, one at Edinburgh, in 1849, and the other at Glasgow, in 1852, at an aggregate expense of over £20,000. The buildings for Normal Schools, in Scotland, have cost over £45,000 ($225,000,) and will accommodate about 300 resident pupils, besides the schools of practice.

Of the forty Training Colleges in England and Scotland, twenty-seven are connected with the Church of England, two with the established Church of Scotland, two with the Free Church of Scotland, one with the Roman Catholic Church, one with the Wesleyan, one with the Congregational denomination; and in the six others, the Church of England has a virtual ascendency.

Sir James Kay Shuttleworth, in his recent work on "Public Education," written to explain and defend the measures of the Committee of Council, and "to exemplify the mode in which the school, transferred by the reformation from the priesthood to the congregation, can continue under religious government, consistently with the privileges of the laity, the right of conscience, and the duty of the civil power to fit its subjects for the discharge of their functions as citizens," makes the following remarks on the Training Colleges, of which in their present form and relations to government, he may be justly considered the author.

The English Normal Training College has thus received a definite constitution, in harmony with the separate religious organization of elementary schools, and forty such establishments have been incorporated into a scheme of administrative action, in which the education of the future schoolmaster commences in the infant, is pursued in the elementary school, developed during his apprenticeship, and completed as a Queen's scholar in the Training College. In every part of this career, he is subject to the direct and independent influence of the religious communion to which he belongs, through the managers of the schools or college. But his exertions are inspected and rewarded by the government. He passes through a graduated series of examinations, by which every portion of this system is brought into harmony, and made to subserve one common end. The principle of self-government is thus reconciled with the claim of the executive to full security for the efficient application of the public money. The religious communion and the civil power have each separate spheres of action: religion is most jealously guarded from the intrusion of secular authority, without suffering any divorce from the school. The schoolmaster will have had all the experience of his scholars and his apprentices, as well as of their future course as Queen's scholars. He will belong to the class for which he ought to have the deepest sympathy. His experience will not be limited to that of domestic life in his parent's cottage, nor will it be likely that, after five years' practical training in the school, the corporate life of his college can so deeply stamp its own device upon his mind, as not to leave it susceptible of impressions which his education will fit him to receive from society. His instruction will be neither too special nor too meagre: too general nor too collegiate. From its commencement to its close, it will be under the influence of religion in his own communion, and it will be at all times under the vigilance of a department to which the civil interests of education are confided.

PAPERS ON SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND THE ART OF TEACHING, GIVEN IN ENGLAND AT THE EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND NOTES OF A LESSON.—1849.

Sect. I.—1. If you have been in a Training Institution, state the chief features of the system on which you have been trained; or if otherwise, state clearly how you obtained a knowledge of the system in which you are now giving instruction.

2. Describe as far as you can, or show by a drawing, the internal arrangements of your school-room, the positions of the desks, gallery, (if any,) Teacher's seat, stoves or fireplaces, doors and windows.

Sect. II.—1. What "furniture" do you conceive to be necessary for a well-appointed school-room.

2. Name the subjects of instruction in your school, mentioning the text-books made use of, and the number of hours per week allotted to each subject.

3. State the principles on which you think a "time-table" should be formed, and show their reasonableness.

Sect. III.—Explain clearly the method on which Religious Instruction is given in your school.

Sect. IV.—Write the heads of two lessons on one of the following subjects; observing carefully the circumstances under which each lesson is to be given, and stating the time which it is to occupy.

1. Geography of England.	(1.) Physical, to a lower Class. (2.) Political, to Pupil-Teachers.
2. Natural History of Water Birds.	(1.) Gallery lesson to young children. (2.) Usual lesson to highest Class.
3. English History—Reign of King John.	(1.) Collective lesson to 3 Classes. (2.) Moral to be drawn from it to Monitors' Class.
4. Object Lesson—Wool.	(1.) To young Children. (2.) Use in manufacture, to highest Class.
5. Obedience to Parents.	(1.) To Infants. (2.) Collective lesson to 3 upper Classes.
6. English Grammar—The Noun.	(1.) To a 3d Class. (2.) To Pupil-Teachers in their private instruction.

Sect. V.—2. Upon what principle would you organize (1,) a large school with the allowed number of Pupil-Teachers; (2,) the same school without a Pupil-Teacher; (3,) a mixed school in a rural district, where the attendance of the children is generally irregular; and (4,) a school of 200 infants in a manufacturing town?

1850.

Sect. I.—Sketch the ground plan of your school, showing the position of the desks and benches; state the subjects of instruction, the number of hours employed in each during the week, and the method which you adopt in imparting instruction in (*a*) writing, (*b*) spelling, (*c*) geography, (*d*) arithmetic, (*e*) grammar.

Sect. II.—Write the heads of a collective lesson for the lower classes in an elementary school, on the life of—

1. David. 2. Jeroboam. 3. John the Baptist.

Sect. III.—Write the heads of a collective lesson for the upper classes in an elementary school, on—

1. The operations of agriculture. 2. The nature and use of the horse. 3. The reign of Queen Elizabeth or William III.

Sect. IV.—1. How would you employ Pupil-Teachers in instructing the upper and lower classes of your school respectively?

2. How would you arrange for the special instruction, out of school hours, to be given to three Pupil-Teachers, all of different standing, engaged in your school at the same time?

Sect. V.—Explain how you would treat the following cases:—

1. Unseen, you observe two young boys fighting in the play-ground; they are urged on by the elder lads, and the Pupil-Teacher takes no notice.

2. A boy has been brought to you by his parents as an incorrigible thief, and they have beaten him well.

3. A big boy has been ill using a little one.

FOR MASTERS.—1851.

Sect. I.—State at length what you understand by the term "School-management."

Sect. II.—1. In a school of 150 boys, say exactly how you would arrange five classes, (*a*) for a reading lesson, (*b*) for writing, (*c*) for arithmetic, to be going on at the same time.

2. Show the use and abuse of the blackboard.

3. Name the different methods in which writing is taught in our elementary schools. State which you believe to be the best, and give your reasons.

Sect. III.—1. Define carefully "Notes of a Lesson;" state how you prepare them; and show on paper their mechanical arrangement.

2. Show by simple instances the difference between giving a lesson to a class ignorant of the subject, and examining the same class when in some degree informed on it.

3. In what way, and to what extent do you instruct your apprentices in the art of teaching? Describe this carefully.

Sect. IV.—Write notes of a lesson on one of the following subjects: Filial affection—Self-denial—Falsehood—Loyalty—Wheat—Soap—Sugar—Cotton—King Alfred—Christopher Columbus—William Shakspeare—and Charles I.

Sect. V.—1. Describe at length your method of giving and correcting an exercise in dictation.

2. State how you deal with children of the following description respectively—ignorant, inattentive, rude, deceitful, unpunctual, irregular in attendance.

3. State fully and accurately the part which you take in the work of your school.

FOR MISTRESSES.—1851.

Sect. I.—Write an essay on one of these subjects:—

1. The formation of moral habits in young girls.
2. The peculiar difficulties of training Pupil-Teachers.

Sect. II.—1. What time in each week should be given to the following subjects in a school of girls between seven and twelve years old:—

Grammar, English History, Writing from Dictation, Arithmetic, Sewing.

2. State also the best method of teaching each of these subjects.

Sect. III.—What apparatus and furniture are required for such a school (containing ninety scholars?) State exactly what use should be made of parallel desks, and of the blackboard.

Sect. IV.—What branches of domestic economy can be taught theoretically in all girls' schools? What manual or book of reference would you recommend to your Pupil-Teachers on this subject?

TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR MASTERS.—SCHOOL MANAGEMENT, AND NOTES OF A LESSON.—1849.

General Questions.

Sect. I.—1. In what respects, chiefly, do schools in manufacturing districts differ from those in agricultural, and schools in town from those in villages of the same district? What peculiar arrangements do you conceive necessary for each?

2. What is your opinion as to the advantages or disadvantages of "mixed schools" (of boys and girls?) How should you organize such schools, and arrange the children when saying their lessons, and when seated? Give your reasons plainly, but concisely.

3. Describe a "good school-room"—particularising its aspect, size, shape, means of ventilation and warming, furniture, apparatus, and internal arrangements.

Organization, Discipline, Method.

Sect. II.—1. State briefly what steps you would take in opening a new school, or in undertaking an old one, divided, as was not uncommon, into ten or twelve classes.

2. What parts of school-management do you conceive to be included in the term "discipline?" To what chief causes do you attribute "want of discipline?" How should you attempt to remedy such an evil.

3. What registry books do you conceive to be necessary, in order that the condition and circumstances of a school may be accurately known—(1st.) to the master—(2d.) to the managers—(3d.) to the public, by means of special and statistical reports? Give your reasons.

School Work.

Sect. III.—1. State at length your method of teaching young children to read.

2. Is it desirable, under the present circumstances of schools, that the children should read poetry? Give your reasons for or against this exercise; and if favorable to it, state what authors you prefer.

Sect. IV.—1. What arrangement of desks do you consider the best for instruction in writing? Give your reasons.

2. Describe a lesson in simple subtraction to a junior class.

3. State your method of giving a lesson in dictation to young children. Should you always make use of a book? What sort of a book should you use?

4. For what lessons, and to what extent, would you make use of the "blackboard?" Give an instance in a geography lesson.

Pupil-Teachers.

Sect. V.—1. At what time of the day would you give your Pupil-Teachers their private instructions of 1½ hour? State your reasons.

2. State plainly what duties you would allot to Pupil-Teachers in your school, for what length of time you would instruct a class to each, and why.

3. In a school where Pupil-Teachers are apprenticed, what are the chief benefits to be expected, and what the chief evils to be guarded against, by the Master as well as the apprentices?

Notes of a Lesson.

Sect. VI.—1. What obvious points of difference are there between a collective lesson and a class-lesson? Mention them, and illustrate your answer by notes of a lesson (of each kind) on the "Birth of our blessed Saviour."

2. Give the notes of a lesson to your Pupil-Teachers, in the last year of their apprenticeship, on "prosody," making quotations at length from approved authors.

3. What do you understand by the expression, "Notes of a Lesson?" What is their object and use? State the principal on which they should be arranged, and show it practically in the notes of an object-lesson on "cloth."

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.—1850.

Sect. I.—1. How would you organize a school of 60 children, from seven to thirteen years of age, supposing that you had a Pupil-Teacher in his fourth year? Draw a plan of the school-room you would prefer, showing the arrangement of the classes, and the forms and desks. What part would you yourself take in the instruction of such a school, and what would you assign to your Pupil-Teacher?

2. What different methods have been devised for organizing elementary schools? Illustrate your descriptions of these by diagrams, state which of them you yourself prefer, and the reasons for that preference.

3. What objects should specially be, kept in view in the organization of a school? What are the advantages resulting from a good organization, and what are those elements of a school which no organization, however good, will secure?

Sect. II.—1. What expedients should be adopted to secure a regular attendance of the children in a school? What are those qualities of the Master which are most likely to promote this regular attendance?

2. Show the divisions of the page of a register, by which the date of the transfer of each boy in a school from class to class may be recorded and easily referred to? What would be the advantages of such a register? What other means could you devise for recording the progress which each child is making?

3. What are the most important statistics to be recorded in a school: 1st, to aid the Schoolmaster in his work; 2d, for the information of the School Managers; 3d, for the information of the Legislature?

Sect. III.—1. Give examples of the questions in mental arithmetic which you would propose to a class of children of about eight years of age, and of those which you would give to your highest class.

2. What different methods have been proposed for teaching children to read, and on what grounds?

3. On what principle is the method of Pestalozzi in teaching arithmetic founded? Describe the table used in teaching by that method, and the way in which they are applied.

Sect. IV.—1. Describe some of the characteristic defects of teaching in elementary schools.

2. What are the advantages of *oral* instruction, and what its disadvantages? What are the advantages of making this instruction collective, what are its disadvantages, and how can they best be guarded against?

3. What are the advantages of *questioning* as a method of teaching? Is it expedient to limit all oral teaching to that? If not, in what manner, and to what extent, may *exposition* best be united with it?

4. What relation ought oral teaching to have to the teaching of books?

Sect. V.—1. Write the heads of a lesson on the parable of the Rich Man and Lazarus, with a special reference to the practical instruction which it is intended to convey.

2. What are the faculties of children which it is the object of education to exercise and cultivate, and what expedients of instruction have a special application to each?

3. What are the characteristic dangers of the Schoolmaster's profession; 1st, with reference to himself; 2d, with reference to his scholars; 3d, to the parents of his scholars; 4th, to the managing of his school?

Sect. VI.—1. Show that the happiness of children ought to be respected in a school.

2. In what respects may the selfishness of a Teacher be prejudicial to the interests of his scholars and to his own? What facilities are afforded him for the indulgence of it?

NORMAL SCHOOL

OF THE

BRITISH AND FOREIGN SCHOOL SOCIETY, BOROUGH ROAD, LONDON.

The following account of the Borough Road Normal School of the British and Foreign School Society is compiled from a report of Joseph Fletcher, Esq., one of her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, to the Committee of Council on Education, submitted April 7, 1847, and from documents published in the Annual Reports of the Society.

The Normal establishment of the British and Foreign School Society is situated in Borough Road, at the corner of Great Union Street, London, and consists of two Normal Schools, one for male, and the other for female teachers, and two large model schools, one for boys and the other for girls, in which one thousand pupils are daily under instruction, on the monitorial system. These latter schools, while incidentally benefiting the neighborhood in which they are situated, are mainly sustained for the purpose of exhibiting in actual practice the most improved methods of instruction, and as a means of training in the art of teaching, and in the management of children the various classes of persons who enter the institution for this purpose. This was the leading object of the school, the nucleus of the present establishment, originally organized by Joseph Lancaster, near the present site, in 1798. At first it was attempted to raise a number of monitors into pupil teachers, and in 1805 the sum of $400 was raised, by donations, expressly as a capital "for training school masters" by boarding youths of the right character, at the institution. This was the germ of all subsequent normal schools for training elementary teachers in England. The attempt to erect a plain building to accomodate the young men and lads, whom Mr. Lancaster undertook to qualify for schoolmasters, led to a series of embarrassments, from which he was relieved in 1808 by the generous subscription of Joseph Fox, and others, who organized, for this purpose, (including the King and Royal Family,) an association called the "Royal Lancasterian Institution for promoting the Education of the Poor," which was afterwards changed to the "British and Foreign School Society," as more descriptive of its widening aim and influence. Regarding the instruction of the people as a national object, it has always maintained that it ought to be treated nationally, as belonging to towns rather than to churches, to districts rather than to congregations. So early as 1808 the cardinal object of the society is thus set forth in one of its rules.

> The institution shall maintain a school on an extensive scale to educate children. It shall support and train up young persons of both sexes for supplying properly instructed teachers to the inhabitants of such places in the British dominions, at home and abroad, as shall be desirous of establishing schools on the British system. It shall instruct all persons, whether natives or foreigners, who may be sent from time to time for the purpose of being qualified as teachers in this or any other country.

Every year, from the enactment of this rule, persons were admitted to the school for a longer or a shorter period of time, to observe, learn, and practice the methods of classification and instruction pursued therein. In 1818, forty-four teachers were trained, and subsequently recommended to schools; in 1828, the number had increased to eighty-seven; in 1838, it amounted to one hundred and eighty-three, and in 1846, it was over two hundred.

The committee of the society were painfully conscious that many teachers who resorted to the school, were but poorly prepared in energy of character, tact, and christian spirit, to make good teachers; or if qualified in these respects, would stay long enough in training to acquire the requisite attainment and practical skill. "For such persons a period of *two years*, rather than *three months*, is required; and until this can be afforded, the quality of the instruction imparted in country schools, must of necessity be very unsatisfactory. In the absence of better provision, however, these considerations only enhance the importance of that which has been already affected; and afford additional reasons for sustaining and enlarging, as far as may be practicable, the facilities which are now afforded by your training department for the preparation of teachers."

In 1839, the Committee of Council on Education was formed, and in the course of the year, they proffered to both the National Society, and the British and Foreign School Society, a grant of £5000 towards the erection of two Normal Schools. This society therefore resolved to improve an opportunity which presented itself for the purchase of land adjoining to their premises in the Borough Road; and having obtained from the Corporation of the City of London an extension of the ground lease, which was cheerfully accorded on the most liberal terms, they determined to erect, thereupon, buildings capable of accommodating at least sixty resident candidates, together with libraries and lecture-rooms sufficiently extensive for the instruction of a much larger number, so that fifty or sixty more may, if it should be found desirable, lodge and board in the neighborhood, and attend as out-door pupils.

The new normal schools were completed in 1842, at an expense of £21,433 7s. 9d. defrayed by £5000 from Government, £1000 from the Corporation of London, £14,716 10s. 10d. from the friends of the institution generally, £276 15s. an offering from British School teachers who had been trained in it, and the remaining £440 1s. 11d., from the sale of old materials. The new buildings were opened on the 29th of June in the same year, when Lord John Russell presided at an examination of the model schools, and a report was read, which concluded by saying that, "To state in detail the precise course of instruction to be pursued in this new building, would as yet be premature. It may at present be sufficient to state, that it is intended that the course of instruction shall be very considerably enlarged, that additional teachers shall be engaged, that the time now devoted by candidates to preparatory training, shall be extended to the utmost practicable limit, that facilities shall be afforded for the attendance and instruction of the teachers of country schools, during a portion of their vacations, and that, as heretofore, every improvement in education which may be introduced either at home or abroad, shall receive immediate attention, be fairly subjected to the test of experiment, and if found really valuable, at once adopted."

This great establishment is divided into two entirely distinct portions, forming respectively the male and female departments; the former occupying the eastern, and the latter the western portion of the buildings, between which there is no direct means of communication whatever, except by a private door, opened once a-day, to permit the young women to take their seats in the back part of the theatre, during the daily conversational lecture of the principal of the normal school on the art of teaching and governing in a school. Each department, again, has its respective normal and model school; and each of the normal schools is divided into two classes, forming respectively the senior and junior divisions of the young persons und ertraining. The whole is under the constant general supervision of the Committees, meeting on the premises, and of the Secretary.

resident in them; but the whole of their active management devolves upon the officers hereinafter named.

The following are considered as the general and primary QUALIFICATIONS REQUIRED IN ALL CANDIDATES, whether male or female:—

1. *Religious Principle.*—Whilst the Committee would disclaim anything approaching to a sectarian spirit, they consider it indispensable that persons to whom the moral and religious instruction of youth is confided should exemplify in their lives the Christian character, and be conscientiously concerned to train up their youthful charge "in the nurture and admonition of the Lord." In requiring the most explicit testimonials on this important point, the Committee feel that they are only fulfilling the wishes of their constituents; an opinion which is confirmed by the fact, that in almost all the applications they receive for teachers, it is expressly stipulated that they must be persons of decided piety, and that no others will be accepted.

2. *Activity and Energy.*—These are essential.

An indolent or inactive person can never make an efficient schoolmaster or schoolmistress. The arrangements of a school on the British system, when well conducted, considerably diminish the amount of labor required from the teacher; but it is a system which peculiarly demands liveliness and activity both of body and mind.

3. *A competent share of Talent and Information.*—The Committee have no desire to change in any respect the great principle on which they first set out—that of imparting to the laboring classes elementary instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic; but the present state of society requires that a teacher should possess the ability to give instruction in higher branches of knowledge. Indeed, if teachers are to exercise any valuable influence over their pupils, they must themselves be intelligent; they must be able to inform and interest children generally, and to draw out and strengthen their feeble powers.

In addition to these qualifications, the Committee esteem it desirable that the candidate should possess kindness, and great firmness of mind, combined with good temper; in short, those dispositions of heart which gain so much on the affections of the young. The age of the applicant should not be less than twenty, nor more than thirty; and all candidates receive the following "general notices:"—

1. Candidates received into the Institution *on the reduced terms*, are understood to pledge themselves to act (as far as practicable) on the great leading principles adopted by the Society.

2. Candidates who do not subject the Society to any cost on their behalf, are considered at liberty to engage themselves as teachers of schools connected with other educational bodies, or attached to particular denominations of Christians.

3. All persons, on completing the term for which they are accepted, must withdraw from the Institution; and (if candidates for schools under the Society) must reside with their friends until suitable openings occur.

Normal School for Young Men.

The officers of the male department are, for the

Normal School—A Principal—Vice-Principal and Teacher of Drawing and Music.

Model School.—A Superintendent and Assistant.

Household.—A Curator and Housekeeper.

The *domestic* arrangements (subject to the oversight of a sub-Committee) are placed under the care of the housekeeper and the curator.

The duty of the housekeeper is to direct and control all matters relating to the board and lodging of the young men. She is required to provide the requisite food, to engage the domestic servants, and to secure at all times order, cleanliness, and punctuality in those portions of the establishment which fall under her supervision. All accounts of disbursements are transmitted to the accountant for examination monthly.

The duty of curator embraces all matters connected with the daily and hourly supervision of the students, and the maintenance of order, cleanliness, and harmony throughout the establishment. He is—

1. To keep a record of all persons entering or leaving the establishment, or attending any of the classes.

2. To see that all the rooms used by the students, or their teachers, are always clean, and well ventilated.

3. To preside with the housekeeper at all meals; to conduct family reading morning and evening; and to be responsible for the adherence of every student to all the regulations laid down for his guidance while in the institution.

He is further to give *a daily written report* to the secretary, whose private apartments, though distinct from the general establishment, are within the building, and through whom, in case of irregularity, appeal can at once be made to the Committee.

The *dietary* provided for the students is plain, but varied, substantial, and abundant.

A medical practitioner, residing in the immediate neighborhood, is called in (free of cost to the student) on the first appearance of indisposition.

There are dormitories in the male department for only 45 students; 27 in separate rooms, and 18 in nine larger rooms, with two beds in each. The remainder of the 66 pupils in this department, on the day of my general examination, were occupying apartments in the neighborhood, in houses of respectability, in which it is proposed that hereafter they shall be hired for them by the officers of the Institution. All, however, board in the house. The principal and vice-principal of the normal school and the superintendent of the model school are respectively charged with the proper occupation of the students' time, according to the Tables hereafter given; and at all intervening periods their employments are under the general superintendence of the curator, who marks lists to check their employment of the time assigned to private study, whether individually or under mutual monitors, and has charge of the manners and conduct of the young men generally, enlisting the aid of the two senior students for the time being. The young men perform no household services, beyond cleaning their own shoes and brushing their own clothes; for the time of their stay is too short to justify the sacrifice of any portion of it to industrial occupations. Indeed, most of them have already had a complete course of industrial education in the trades and occupations from which they have respectively come.

Rules to which every Student is expected rigidly to conform.

I. Relating to Sleeping Apartments:—1. To rise every morning at 6 o'clock when the bell rings.

2. Before leaving the room to uncover the bed-clothes, and to see that all books, articles of dress, &c., are placed in the drawers. For every article found in the room a fine will be enforced.

3. On no occasion whatever, without special permission, to have a candle, match, or other light in the room. (As the violation of this rule will endanger the safety of the building, any offender will be specially reported to the Committee, and probably directed to leave the institution.)

4. Every student is to confine himself to his own bed-room, and to have no communication with any other, conversation not being allowed after retiring for the night.

5. All washing and cleaning the person to be performed in the respective rooms; the troughs on the landing never to be used for that purpose.

6. The bed-rooms to be finally vacated for the day at five minutes to nine, and under no pretence whatever is any student to visit them again until bed-time. At no period will he be allowed to go up stairs in shoes worn during the day.

II. Relating to the Classes:—1. To be present in the school of design at half-past 6 o'clock in the morning to answer to the roll, and then to proceed to the classes.

2. To be present at the additional roll-calls at the undermentioned times, viz., five minutes to nine, five minutes to two, and half-past nine in the evening.

3. To attend all the classes during the day at the precise time. From twelve to one to be invariably devoted to exercise in the open air. If no letters or parcels have to be delivered, the time to be occupied in walking out.

4. From half-past eight to half-past nine in the evening to be devoted to the preparations of the studies. The students who have finished will be required to maintain order and silence, that no interruption may be occasioned to those who are studying.

III. Relating to Meals:—1. To be ready for breakfast punctually at a quarter past eight; dinner at a quarter past one; tea at a quarter past five; and supper at half-past eight; at which hours the bell will ring.

2. On entering the dining-room for any meal, every student to remain standing in his place until the housekeeper and curator have entered and taken their seats; and on the housekeeper rising to leave the room (which sign indicates the conclusion of the meal), every student will be expected to rise, and the one nearest to the door to open it.

3. During meals no reading will be allowed; silence must be observed, and the strictest propriety of behavior maintained, rudeness, selfish eagerness to be assisted before others, or indecorum of any kind, will be noticed, and expose the parties to merited rebuke.

IV. Relating to other Periods of Time:—1. No singing, loud talking, or unnecessary noise in the passages, or in any part of the building, will be tolerated. No throwing of ink, or other careless or filthy habit, will on any account be suffered. Parties offending will be specially reported to the Committee.

2. No book, paper, article of dress or of other use, will be allowed, under any pretext, to lie about any of the rooms or passages; a place being appointed for everything, everything must be in its place. For every offence a fine will be enforced, and the article detained until it is paid.

3. No student is to be absent from the premises without the permission of the curator, or (if in

class hours) of the teacher of the class from which he wishes to be absent; and he is never to be out later than half-past nine.

4. On Sunday he will be expected to attend twice at his accustomed place of worship, and to spend the remainder of the day in quietness and propriety.

5. Never to enter the depository except on business.

In order to carry the above regulations into effect the curator is strictly charged by the Committee to impound all articles left about, and on no account to return them to the owners without payment of the fine; and, further, never to allow any violation of these rules to pass without severe rebuke.

As, however, many offences may be committed where the guilty party cannot be discovered, the two senior students (for the time being) will be held responsible for all such misdemeanors. If injury be done to any part of the rooms, or unnecessary dirt brought in, it will be their duty to find out and report on the offender; in which case he will be required to remove or repair it.

All fines to be spent in books for the library.

The following is the official outline of the Normal School of Young Men :—

I. Persons eligible.—Subject to the general qualifications already enumerated, *five* classes of persons are eligible for admission.

Class A.—Young men desirous of becoming teachers, who wish to be introduced to a school by the Committee, and are prepared to remain in the institution twelve months.

Class B.—Young men desirous of becoming teachers, who wish to be introduced to a school by the Committee, but are unable to remain longer than six months.

Class C.—Youths and other persons who desire to adopt the profession of a teacher, but wish subsequently to be at their own disposal. These are considered as private teachers, and are required to pay the fees attached to each class.

Class D.—Teachers elected to schools, or already conducting them, but desirous of attending, for some limited period, any of the classes, with a view to farther improvement.

Class E.—Missionaries or other persons proceeding abroad, with a view to the promotion of education in foreign parts.

II. Times of Admission.—Class A.—January and July.

Class B.—January, April, July, and October.

Classes C, D, and E.—Monthly, by special correspondence with the Secretary.

Classes A and B are expected to board in the establishment. Reduced charge, 6s. a week; the whole sum to be paid in advance.

Class C cannot be admitted to board or lodge. They must also pay in advance the fee required on entering each class.

Classes D and E may be admitted to board by special arrangement.

III. Mode of Application.—The first step to be taken by the candidate is to *write a letter to the Secretary*, stating briefly his *age*, *state of health*, and *present employment;* also *whether he is married or single*, and, if married, *what family* he has.

Secondly, he should mention, generally, the amount of his attainments, and state the length of time he could devote to the work of preparation.

Thirdly, whether he has had any practice in communicating instruction to children, either in day or Sunday schools; whether he has ever been engaged in benevolent efforts for the improvement of the poor; and whether he has been in the habit of attending any means of general or religious instruction beyond the ordinances of public worship.

This letter, which should be as brief as circumstances will admit, should be accompanied by *explicit testimonials* from the clergyman or minister of the church or congregation with which the candidate may be connected, and from one or more persons to whom he may be known, as to his possession of the qualifications already mentioned as indispensable.

On receipt of these communications, the Secretary will bring the application before the Committee at their first meeting, and afterwards communicate further with the candidate.

The sub-Committee appointed to investigate the testimonials of candidates meets at the house of the Institution, in the Borough Road, on the first Monday in every month, at 10 o'clock in the forenoon

If the candidate reside in or near London, he should attend the Committee at this time, *but not unless he has had on some previous day a personal interview with the Secretary.*

Supposing the Committee to be satisfied with the letter and testimonials, the candidate will be informed when he is to present himself for preliminary examination, on the following points :—

1. *As to his Health.*—It will be required that persons admitted into the Institution shall be in good health, and free from any serious physical defect; and that they shall either have had the small-pox or have been vaccinated.

2. *As to the Amount of his Knowledge.*—He must read fluently and without unpleasant tones; he must write a fair hand, spell correctly, be well acquainted with the first four rules of arithmetic, and have some general acquaintance with geography and history.

If the result of this examination be on the whole satisfactory, the candidate (having paid the amount required) receives a certificate, on delivery of which to the Curator he is presented with a copy of the rules of the establishment, and either received into the house or introduced to the classes he wishes to attend. If the result be unsatisfactory, a written report to that effect is made to the Secretary, who will then communicate with the Committee, and with the candidate or his friends

By these preliminary inquiries and investigations, it is hoped that in the majority of cases subsequent disappointment may be prevented; but as it is impossible to decide, *prior to actual experiment*, whether any person has or has not that peculiar tact in the management and *control* of children, and those powers of arrangement, as applied to numbers, without which no teacher can successfully carry out the combinations of a British school,—every candidate is required to hold himself ready to withdraw from the Institution should he be found thoroughly deficient in the art of managing, interesting, and controlling children.

The Committee do not in any case *pledge themselves* to furnish candidates with situations; but as hitherto they have been in the habit of receiving applications for teachers from the numerous friends of education in different parts of the country, they have reason to hope that it will generally be in their power to recommend the candidates they may train to parties thus applying.

IV.—Vacations.—Midsummer.—Four weeks from the Friday preceding Midsummer day.

Christmas.—One week from the Friday preceding Christmas-day.

Easter.—From the Thursday preceding Good Friday to the Wednesday in the ensuing week.

At the Midsummer vacation every student is required to leave the Institution, and to provide himself with board and lodging during that period.

V.—Table of Classes.—Class I.—*Grammar and English Composition* :—Students of Six Months.—A course of English Grammar, including the chief roots (especially the Anglo-Saxon,) and derivatives of the language. *Composition.*—Forms of letters, notes, &c. Abstracts of remarks and lectures will be looked over, with a view to the correction of errors in orthography or composition.

Students of Twelve Months.—An extended course in the construction of the English language. So much of comparative grammar as may be understood by those assumed to know only one language. *Composition.*—A systematic course. Essays on some branches of teaching.

Class II.—*Elocution : Readings in Prose and Poetry* :—In this class the pieces read are selected from the Third Lesson Book, and are accompanied by systematic interrogation from the notes. The pupils are also required to interrogate one another.

Class III.—*Arithmetic and Mathematics* :—This class includes—

1. *Arithmetic.*—Principles from De Morgan.
2. *Geometry.*—Books ii. iii. iv v. vi. of Euclid's Elements.
3. Elements of algebra and trigonometry.

Class IV.—*Model Lessons in Natural Philosophy, Natural History, Botany, and Chemistry* :—The object of these lessons (which, with the aid of suitable books of reference, are *prepared* by the pupils before breakfast) is twofold ; *first*, to render them sufficiently acquainted with the various subjects treated in the Fourth Lesson Book, to enable them to teach that book intelligently; and, *secondly*, to exhibit to the tutor the extent of their knowledge, and the degree of ability possessed for imparting the same to children. The instruction given in natural philosophy is of a popular kind, suited to the acquirements of students, some of whom may be acquainted only with the elementary parts of pure mathematics.

Class V.—*Art of Teaching.*—This class, at which all the teachers in training (both male and female) are required to attend, is held in the lecture-room of the institution.

The time is occupied in criticism on the gallery lesson of the day, in a conversational lecture on some topic connected with the principles or practice of teaching, and in the examination of written notes.

The course consists of 60 lectures, and is completed in 12 weeks.

Class VI.—*Practical Simultaneous Lessons.*—This class (at which all attend) is conducted in the gallery class-rooms, where the teachers in turn are required to give collective lessons ; after which, the criticisms of the teachers who have been spectators are required to be given in the lecture-room. The tutor then comments on various defects and merits in the lessons.

Class VII.—*Bible Lesson* —This class is conducted in the model school, each teacher being required to instruct and question a draft of 10 or 12 children, on a given subject, under the inspection of the tutor and the superintendent of the school.

Class VIII.—*School of Design.*—This class is separated into two divisions, upper and lower. In the upper, drawing is taught, in the following order :—

1. Maps and charts.
2. Machinery
3. Architecture with and without models.
4. Figures and landscapes

In the lower division, writing is taught, and then simple geometrical figures, and outlines of maps.

Class IX.—*Geography and History.—Geography.*—Geography of the chief countries of the globe, including their main natural features, towns, manufactures, government, population, and social condition. Connexion between the political and physical geography of countries. Leading features of mathematical geography.

History.—General history, ancient and modern.

Class X.—*Arithmetic* (*Lower Class*).

Arithmetic.—Written and mental.

Geometry.—A course of practical geometry. The first book of Euclid's Elements.

Mensuration.—An elementary course.

Class XI.—*Elements of Physics.*—This class is simply intended to furnish the required information for the ordinary teaching of the Fourth Lesson Book.

Class XII.—*Vocal Music.*—This class is maintained by a separate voluntary subscription, and attendance is optional on the part of the students. The methods and books both of Mr. Hickson and Hullah are adopted.

⁂ The books required for each class, which are few and inexpensive, must be purchased by the student.

VI.—*Examinations.—Weekly Examinations.*—Every candidate will undergo a strict examination as to the amount of work performed during each week: he is required to record in a journal his labors and progress; and it is then ascertained, by a series of questions, whether that which he supposes himself to have acquired be thoroughly understood and digested. He is also examined as to the mode in which he would communicate to others the knowledge he has gained.

Half-Yearly Examinations:—

Examiners.—Professor———————————Coll.
Professor——————————Coll.

Certificates of proficiency will be granted at the discretion of the examiners.

Any schoolmaster who has been instructed by the Society, or who may be engaged in conducting any school in connexion with it, may (by previous notice to the Secretary) offer himself for examination, in order to obtain a certificate of proficiency.

The lower class examination will embrace—

Reading; writing; arithmetic (written and mental;) grammar; geography; English history; knowledge of the Scriptures; elements of geometry, drawing, and music; and the art of teaching.

The higher class (in addition) practical geometry; mensuration; the elements of algebra and trigonometry; natural philosophy; an extended course of mathematical and physical geography; construction of maps; and drawing, as applied to mechanics and architecture.

As the object of the Society is to prepare teachers, and not merely to improve students, the books used as text-books are, as far as practicable, those used in the schools, and the examinations will be conducted with special reference to the ultimate object in view, viz., effective teaching.

The male department is, in effect, subdivided into distinct sections, placed respectively under the principal of the normal school, making the preliminary examinations, conducting the studies of the senior class, and giving three-fifths of the lectures to the whole in "pedagogy," or the art of teaching and governing in a school; under the vice-principal of the normal school, conducting the studies of the junior class as well as those of the morning classes of the female students, and likewise conveying the other two-fifths of the instruction in "pedagogy;" and under the superintendent of the model school, who has the entire disposal of that section, and the arrangement of the students' exercises in it. The junior class consists, in the main, of those whose stay in the institution has not exceeded three months; the senior class, of those whose stay has exceeded that term.

Amongst those admitted as students, very great variety obtains in respect to attainments and capacity. Hence classification, at first, is almost impracticable. This, added to the difficulty occasioned by the entrance of new students at every period of the quarter, creates no little embarrassment in the management of the junior class, especially when the numbers are so large. Almost every one, on his entrance, is totally ignorant of some one or more of the branches of study pursued; hence it becomes necessary to adopt, to a great extent, the tedious and distracting plan of individual instruction. Very few of them can read *well*, that is, with intelligence and correctness of pronunication, while the monotonous tones of some, and the almost inveterate provincialisms of others, require much time and attention to correct. Besides, unhappily, many of those whose *general acquirements* are of a fair average character, have comparatively neglected orthography and reading, and consequently very much of their time during their stay in the class is necessarily devoted to these elementary studies. Some again, have made apparently fair progress in arithmetic, grammar, &c., previous to admission; but though able to perform the operations in one science, and give definitions or parse sentences in the other, it is found, on examination, that their knowledge is merely by rote, and that the principles in both cases are not at all understood: they know that the thing is so and so, but they cannot tell why. Again, some who are, to some extent acquainted with principles, are quite unable to communicate their information to others, especially to children, and their efforts rather resemble awkward attempts at lecturing than intelligent teaching. All the time that can be spared from learning and practising the art of teaching has to be employed by this junior class in a vigorous effort to repair the deficiencies of their own elementary education. For this purpose they form a very interesting school of primary instruction under the Vice-Principal.

The following is the course of study of the junior class during the quarter ended 31st March, 1847, as described by its tutor, Mr. Saunders:—

Grammar.—The parts of Speech, and the Exercises upon them in Allen and Cornwell's Grammar, using also the Latin Roots there given; and the first part of Cornwell's Young Composer.

Geography.—General principles, Mathematical and Physical—Varieties of the Human Race—General features and divisions of Europe—Physical Geography of England—Text-book: Cornwell's Geography.

Natural History.—The great divisions of the Animal Kingdom—Radiata in detail—Text-book: Mrs. Lee's Introduction to Natural History, and Cuvier.

Writing.—Improvement of the style in four hands.

Arithmetic.—Principles and practice from Notation to Compound Proportion inclusive—and Square and Cube Roots.—Text-books: Crossley's Calculator and Thompson's Arithmetic.

Arithmetic (*Mental*)—All the Rules in Crossley's Intellectual Calculator.

Linear Drawing.—Geometrical Figures in Dyce's Designs, and in Francœur's Linear Drawing.

History.—Roman and Saxon England in Outline—Norman period with the Feudal System and the Crusades in detail—Text-books: Pinnock's Goldsmith, revised by Dr. Taylor, and Macintosh's History of England.

Natural Philosophy.—General Divisions—Properties of Matter and Laws of Motion—Text-books: Peschell's Physics and Mosseley's Illustrations.

Mensuration and Geometry.—Plane Figures—Text-books: Pasley's Practical Geometry, and Elliot's Geometry and Mensuration.

Elocution.—A series of 24 lessons in prose and poetry—Text-books: the Society's Lesson Books, and Allen's English Poetry.

Scripture —Geography and History of Canaan from the call of Abraham to the present time—Text-book: Horne's Introduction to the Study of the Scriptures.

Various other works are used as sources of illustration, and the students are referred to them for further information, in their future hours of leisure.

The junior class is assembled on five evenings in the week, for two hours and a half, from 6 to half-past 8 o'clock, and on the morning of Saturday for four hours, from 9 to 1 P.M. The evening of *Monday* is occupied by devoting one hour to English Grammar, one hour to Geography, and half an hour to the elements of Physics. The lessons having been previously prepared during the period allotted to study in the morning, one of the students is selected by the tutor to examine the class in the lesson on grammar appointed for the evening. His questions are addressed to the members of the class individually, and on the failure of any one to reply to the question proposed, it is put to another, and another. This is required to be done with as much rapidity and precision as possible, and should every one in the class fail to reply satisfactorily, the interrogator must then explain the subject to them, and examine them again. "The exercises on the different rules of grammar, as corrected by themselves, are read from their exercise books, every exercise being written before a lesson is considered as past, and a record of it is then made in their journals. During the whole of this time the tutor is with them, occasionally asking questions on the lesson under consideration, pointing out to the class the errors of the questioner and their own. At the close of each lesson the students are required to mention anything which to them may seem objectionable in the manner in which the questions are put, or in errors of pronunciation, or any other which they may have observed; and yet further to show how they would have proceeded under the same circumstances. This plan of friendly but searching criticism is carried on with every lesson superintended by one of the students. The geographical lesson is given by one of the students, previously appointed, much in the same manner as the simultaneous or gallery lessons are given in the model school—that is, he furnishes them with information on the particular country or countries beyond what they may already possess; having ascertained the latter by questions at the commencement of the lesson. About half an hour is occupied in this manner, and then another half hour by another of the students in interrogation on the same subject; thus it is speedily ascertained if the information has been received by them, and also whether their notions are clear and distinct. In physics the same course is pursued, and, when requisite and practicable, experiments are introduced, drawings and diagrams used, and objects exhibited."

The evening of *Tuesday* is occupied for the first hour in writing in copy-books, each copy being submitted to the tutor; the errors are pointed out, and a line written by him with special reference to those errors; the student is thus furnished with a copy precisely adapted to his wants. The next hour is devoted to drawing. In this, as in writing, the measure of success depends mainly on individual practice, and therefore the teaching is individual rather than simultaneous. Very few have practiced even drawing from copies before they came to the institution. Those who have, possess the facility of hand and eye which the preliminary exercises in this class are chiefly designed to convey. But the greater number require very careful introduction to the first notions and habits of representing forms on a plane surface, or even of drawing straight lines, and measuring them into relative lengths, without which they are quite unprepared to use the models which are introduced in the senior drawing classes. They make these first sketches in charcoal, so as to admit of correction, chiefly from simple geometrical figures in the published books of the Government School of Design, or from enlarged copies of those contained in Francœur's "Linear Drawing," prepared for the schools of France, organized on the Lancasterian system. This hour is the only one in the week devoted to drawing by those who are under the instruction of Mr. Saunders; but it suffices to give a habit of using the eye and the crayon. Mental Arithmetic occupies the next half hour; and as mental calculations depend so much on the ability to combine numbers rapidly and to detect their relations, much of the time devoted to them is occupied by tables and analyses of numbers, forming a firm basis on which to build up rapid and correct calculations.

On *Wednesday* evening the first hour and the last half hour are occupied in the same manner as on Monday, but the hour from 7 to 8 is devoted to the History of England; the lesson being treated precisely in the same manner as the geography.

On *Thursday* evening the first hour is devoted to Elocution. The members of the class standing in a circle in the School of Design, the tutor reads about a page in the style and spirit which he wishes should characterize their reading. The students then read in turn: at the close of the reading of each, observations on the excellences or defects of the reader are elicited from his companions; the teacher makes his own remarks on these observations and on the reading itself; and the pupil who sits next in rotation resumes the text. The next hour is devoted to Practical Geometry, for their exercises in which the students occupy seats at the desks in the School of Design, and each is furnished with a slate, compasses, triangle, and ruler. The problem to be executed is then distinctly enunciated by the tutor; the first step in its performance is explained and exhibited on a large black board, each copying it on his slate by means of instruments; the second step is then explained and illustrated in like manner. When completed, the question occurs, 'What have you done?' And if the answer does not agree with the conditions of the problem, the discrepancy is pointed out and corrected. If the performance is correct and the reply satisfactory, the figure described is obliterated from the board and the slates, and the problem has to be executed again without any direction whatever. If this can be done, the next is proceeded with, and so on. As most of the students on entering are altogether ignorant of geometry, no very great amount of progress can be made: but a good foundation may be laid for future improvement. The text-book used is one well adapted to the age of the students, combined with their want of early practice. It is Pasley's "Complete Course of Practical Geometry and Plan Drawing." It is employed to illustrate their practice in drawing from copies of geometrical figures, and simple problems in mensuration are pertinently introduced. The remaining half hour of Thursday evening is devoted to written arithmetic, or, in the conventional phrase of the schools, to "slate arithmetic." It is applied to the development of principles, or the application of them to practice, as may be required. In either case the students themselves are called upon to explain to their fellows the lesson received from the tutor, and to exhibit illustrations of it on the black board.

The first hour of *Friday*, as of Tuesday, evening, is devoted to Writing. The second hour to Elocution or Reading, in like manner as the first hour of the preceding evening: and the concluding half hour is employed in a lesson in Physics, as on Monday and Wednesday.

On *Saturday* morning the first hour is devoted to Modern History and Geography; the second to examinations in Arithmetic, especially in principles; the third to examinations in Grammar and Etymology, particularly Greek and Latin roots; and the fourth to Scripture Geography and History; all of them conducted in the same manner as the lessons already described.

"It should be observed that one of the lessons for each evening is given by the tutor as a model for imitation by the students, all the subjects being taken by him in turn, and attention particularly directed to the points of failure on the part of the students, and the errors into which they are most likely to fall. It might perhaps be supposed that, from remarks being freely made on each other's performances, some exhibitions of ill-feeling might be produced, but I believe myself fully justified in saying that no one instance of the kind has occurred. One advantage gained by these friendly criticisms is, that in very many instances the fault which passes unnoticed when committed by the student himself is apparent to him in another; and hence his correction is applied to his companion and himself at the same time.

"The number of exercises which they are required to write gives them much practice in orthography; but besides this, an hour of one morning in each week is devoted exclusively to writing from dictation; the exercises being examined afterwards by two students appointed to that office by the tutor, who also afterwards examines them again himself. In addition to this, each one in the class is required to write a letter once a week to the tutor, the writer being allowed to select his own subject: this exercise is of great service, as displaying the mental peculiarities of the writer, and affording a medium of private and confidential communication. In the examination of these letters attention is devoted to the most minute points, such as the mode of address, manner of folding, &c.

The members of this junior class also attend, with those of the senior class, the course of 60 lectures on teaching, &c., delivered by the Principal and Vice-Principal of the normal school; making rough notes while the lecture is being given, and writing out afterwards a fair abstract of it in a book furnished to them for that purpose; these abstracts also are examined and corrected by the tutor. During four hours and a half (from 9 till 12, and from 2 till half-past 3) of every day, the students are engaged in teaching classes of boys in the model school "under the close observation of the tutors, one of whom is always present, for the purpose of noticing and pointing out to them their defects, and the mode of supplying them; thus the lessons learned in the normal school are carried into practice in the model school, and the application of theory to practice conducted under strict supervision." Such is the course contemplated; but there appeared to me to be great room for improvement in the practical employment of this valuable portion of time; improvement connected with an economy of opportunities in other departments of the training in this institution, in describing which it will be convenient again to revert to the labors of the model school.

During the past year an additional Bible class to the one mentioned in the Time Table has been established at the request of the students, the time of meeting being from 9 to 10 on the Sunday morning, and though their being present is perfectly voluntary, almost every one of them has been regular and constant in attendance; and the anxiety of many who have left the institution to have copies of the notes of the subjects taken up in the class, since their removal, affords an evidence of the value they set on the instruction communicated.

At the close of the first three months of their stay, the members of this class are put through another general examination by the Vice-Principal, in the presence of the Committee; and from among them the numbers in the upper class are then filled up, so as to leave behind only the few who are yet unprepared to proceed with the rest to any profitable result.

Upper Class in Normal School.

"The upper class," states the Principal of the normal school, "consists of students of not less than three months' standing. Their attention has been directed to the following subjects:—the English Language, Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, and Natural History. These studies have been pursued with me from 6 till half-past 8 during three evenings in the week.* The course, as to method, has been uniform, the instruction having been given in the form of conversational lectures, based, as far as possible, upon the lesson-books of the Society as text-books. As much information has been thus afforded as the students have been supposed to be able to master by study in the early morning of the following day, either privately or in class; and the consciousness that the next time the subject should be taken up it would be commenced by a searching interrogation as to what is known of the last given lesson, has acted as a sufficient stimulus to persevering industry.

"*The English Language.*—This has been treated under three distinct heads. First, that which is ordinarily called *Grammar*, viz., the distinctions in the nature of words, the inflectional changes they undergo, their relations to each other, and the influence they exert in consequence of those relations. In short, syntax and etymology, exclusive of derivation. The aim has been never to give any term, definition, or rule, except as the representative of an idea,—to supply the notion before the words that express it. The *general* principles of language have been given, too, as far as they could be understood by those not having the power of comparison from the want of acquaintance with two languages. Thus the universal fact has been taught, that languages have a tendency to get rid of their inflectional forms, and to express their relations by particles and position; and hence has the reason been shown why the rules of position are so much more important in a language in its recent than in its earlier condition. English and Anglo-Saxon have, perhaps, been instanced.

"The second direct study of English has been the *Formation and Derivation of Words*. These have been taught from lists of Anglo-Saxon, Latin, and Greek primitives found in the grammar. Etymologies have been explained, too, incidentally in connexion with the reading, and the various scientific terms from time to time occurring. In this study extreme accuracy has been insisted on, as it has been felt that persons not unfrequently render themselves ridiculous, by dabbling in a foreign language with which they have not a correct acquaintance as far as it goes.

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* Two whole evenings in each week are devoted to Drawing and Music, under the teacher of those branches.

"*Composition* is the third means that has been employed for teaching the English language. It has been felt to be important that a teacher should be able to express his thoughts in suitable language and in a proper order. In the exercises, importance has been attached to neatness of writing and unaffectedness of style. Considerable advantages have attended this employment. It has been so pursued as to form a new study of English, showing the structure of the language and not of the words, logical and not grammatical relations. Truer, because more extensive views of the nature of their mother-tongue have thus been obtained, than could have been secured had the same time been devoted to the mere study of grammar. I regret to say that in a few instances, too (especially in the teachers selected by local committees), it has not been without its advantages even in regard to orthography.

"We have not yet found time for a systematic course on *English Literature*. It has not, however, been entirely neglected, but has been taken up incidentally in connexion with the composition. For as the exercises found in the text-book are for the most part selections from our best classic authors, fitting opportunities have been afforded, as each came under observation, for giving a slight biographical notice, the characteristics of his style, his principal works, and the recommendation of those deemed most valuable.

"*Geography.*—A good deal of attention has been given to geography. It is attempted to make this an *inductive study;* certain conditions are given, from which certain consequences are to be inferred. Thus the students are expected to discover that the currents of the rivers of Eastern Europe are slow, and of Western Europe rapid; after having been told that the former have their rise at a slight elevation and have a lengthened course, and the latter originate in the high land of Central Europe, at no great distance from the sea. Political and social geography are thus shown to be in a great degree dependent on physical geography; the reason is seen why one nation is agricultural and another commercial; why a certain manufacture should be carried on in a particular locality in preference to every other; and why an alteration in the mode of manufacture should involve a change in its seat. Thus that Holland is agricultural and England manufacturing; that our cotton manufacture is carried on in South Lancashire and the edges of the neighboring counties, and not in Lincolnshire; that our manufactures generally are travelling north and west; and that iron, which was once largely manufactured in Kent and Sussex, is now only smelted on the great coalfields, are not merely so many facts, but highly interesting facts; interesting, because regarded as effects, the causes of which are perceived, and have probably been discovered, by the student himself.

"The *Etymology* of geogrophical names forms an important feature in this branch of knowledge. The name of a place often tells its condition or history; and the explanation of the same by calling into exercise the power of association, increases the probability of its being remembered. Thus the name *Buenos Ayres*, still shows the *salubrity* of the *air* of that town; *Sierra*, the Spanish name for a range of hills, the *saw-like* appearance which it presents; New *York* tells us that it was once a colony of England, and those who know that it was first called New *Amsterdam* know, too, that it was founded by the *Dutch; Virginia*, shows that it was colonized in the reign of our *virgin* queen, Elizabeth; *Carolina*, during that of Charles (*Carolus*). The term *fell*, applied to mountains in the north of England, the south of Scotland, and in the islands of the north and west, shows that these parts of the country were occupied by some tribe or tribes of Scandinavian origin; while *ben* or *pen* found in the most mountainous regions, confirms the facts of history, that these high grounds were unconquered by the northern invaders, and continued in the possession of the original Celtic inhabitants. In thus finding out the cause of the fact, and the cause of the name, the reason has been exercised and the study rendered highly philosophical; and a science which has often been thought to consist only of lists of hard unmeaning words, has been made attractive in a more than usual degree.

"*History*.—This study has been almost exclusively confined to the few great prominent events which have distinguished the history of any country. These have been a good deal amplified—traced to their causes, and pursued to their consequences. Shortness of time necessitates such a method. But irrespective of this, it is considered the best for a first course; for, as these salient events are only the visible development of principles, an acquaintance with these affords a key, as it were, to most of the subordinate intermediate occurrences. The events of English history receive by far the most attention, as do also those nearer our own times, compared with the more remote. In considering the events of other countries, constant reference is made to what was going on at the same time in England. It is thus frequently seen, that the same principle is developing itself at different places at the same time: *e. g.* the struggle between ecclesiastical and kingly power in France and Germany, at the time of our Henry II. and his Archbishop Becket.

"*Mathematics*.—A full and systematic explanation of the *principles of Arithmetic* has formed a part of this study, and has been productive of great advantage to the teachers. Some who have entered the institution as good mathematicians, have been found to be unable to give a reason for the mode of performing the elementary parts of arithmetic. An acquaintance with rules by no means includes a knowledge of principles; but he who understands principles can make rules for himself. A strong interest has been excited, as the principles involved in the most ordinary operations have been evolved, and the effect of this has shown itself remarkably in the different manner of teaching a class of boys in the model school before and after such explanation; dulness on the part of the teacher has been succeeded by spirit, and lassitude on that of the boys by the most lively attention.

"*Demonstrative Geometry* has been pursued, but for the most part by each student independently, such being, in my opinion, the only way in which the advantages attendant on its pursuit are to be realized in the highest degree. The acquirements have, consequently, been very various, from only a few propositions to several books, according to ability and previous attainments. In all cases, however, though not equally, the great object has been secured—*mental drilling*.

"Only the elements of *Algebra* and *Trigonometry* have been taught, and these not systematically. The first has been introduced in connexion with the explanation of the principles of arithmetic, the algebraic formulæ being given as the representatives of *general* truths. Trigonometry has been required for the explanation of certain facts of natural philosophy, especially those of astronomy, and has been then introduced.

"*Natural Philosophy*.—It has been attempted to teach this branch of knowledge so as to combine the popular with the scientific. It has been made *popular* by drawing the illustrations from those phenomena which are every day before our eyes; and, fortunately, the great truths of physics are almost always capable of such illustration. But the *merely* popular has been avoided, by directing attention, not only to results, but to the methods by which such results have been obtained. There are some truths, of course, only to be demonstrated by the higher mathematics. These are quite beyond our reach, and are either entirely omitted or explained by the nearest analogical approximation. But in numerous instances, perhaps most, the principle of a method admits of illustration by means of very elementary mathematical knowledge. Thus the students learn not only that the sun and planets are at such a distance, but the manner in which such results are obtained is given, and shown to involve only the same principles as are employed in the simplest land surveying.

"*Natural History.*—Up to the present time only zoology has been considered. Subsequent to the lectures on this subject, visits have been made, with great advantage, to the Regent's Park Zoological Gardens and the rooms of the British Museum containing the specimens of natural history.

"In the case of the few students who remain with us more than six months, the afternoons of Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, from 2 to half-past 3, are devoted to the further study of mathematics, original composition, and Latin. As regards the latter subject, the progress made is small indeed. It amounts to little more than removing some of the initiatory difficulties attendant on the study of a new language, and showing the student how he may hereafter pursue it with the best prospect of success. Yet slight as is the amount of knowledge obtained, it has not been without its value as affording a glimpse into the nature of language in general, which is not to be obtained by the individual who has no acquaintance with any but his own."

Drawing and Music.—Two whole evenings in every week, those of Monday and Wednesday, are devoted by the senior class to drawing; and three-quarters of an hour is given at the close of every day to singing The course adopted in the scheme of drawing lessons is, in the first instance, to convey to the students, in a series of familiar explanations, such principles of perspective as may be sufficient to enable them to delineate correctly simple lines in various positions. This is done on the black board with chalk; and when the class has evinced a degree of proficiency in such exercises, our next step is to introduce solid forms, involving a further acquaintance with principles which are then progressively laid down. As soon as practicable, the mere outlines on board are superseded by the use of paper, which is continued to the end of the course. The models in use in the classes are the series published under the sanction of the Committee of Council on Education; and we have also, as time and the skill of the student would permit, introduced many simple objects for exercise, such as articles of furniture.

The time devoted to vocal music is necessarily limited; and the lessons are given at the close of the day, to prevent interference with any of the more important studies. The elementary lessons are based on Wilhem's system, as improved by Mr. Hullah; but one lesson in each week is devoted to the practice of simple school-pieces, published in "The Singing Master" of Mr. W. E. Hickson, which is found to be of considerable use in creating an air of cheerfulness, and relieving the more serious exercises.

Art of Teaching and Governing in a School.

The *theory* of teaching and governing, is given in a series of lectures on pedagogy, which are delivered every day in the theatre of the institution, the course running through three months. Of these lectures the students are required to make abstracts. Among these, is a series on mental philosophy; it being deemed of importance, that those who have to influence mind, through the agency of mind, should know something of its operations. Through these lectures the *science of education* is generally understood.

But education is an *art* as well as a science, and as in every other art, perfection is to be obtained only by practice. This practice is secured by the attendance of *all the students in the model school* for four hours and a half during each day. They pass, step by step, through all the parts of the school, commencing with the lowest draft of boys, and ending with the charge of the whole. During this time, they are always under observation; and when any one manifests a want of skill in teaching or government, he is requested to leave the draft, his error is privately pointed out to him, and such directions are given as are considered proper to obviate it. Should the error be of a kind likely to characterize more than the individual, it is noted down and made the subject of observation to all the students when together in the theatre.

The second method of improving the practice is, to assemble all the students in one of the gallery class-rooms, and then to require one of them, who has been previously appointed and furnished with a subject, to give a collective lesson to about a hundred boys. Every one is then engaged in noting down what he considers the defects or merits of the lesson, embracing points of grammar, manner, knowledge, government, &c. At the conclusion of the lesson, all the teachers adjourn to the theatre of the institution, and in turns give their opinions of the lesson. When all have finished, observations are made by myself, first on the criticisms of the observers and then on the general points of excellence or defect which have characterized the lesson.

The third mode of improving the practice is by means of lessons given by the students in turn to all the rest. The chief difference between this method and the last is, that errors are checked as they arise. There is no noting down deficiencies; but as soon as one is observed, the teacher is stopped, the defect pointed out, and he is at once required to rectify it. Before boys, this method would be obviously improper, as the moral influence of the teachers would be destroyed by it. But, among themselves, it is found to work very amicably. Indeed, it has been gratifying to me to witness the good temper with which the criticisms have been all but universally given and received. On the entrance of some students, the observations have been rather intended to show the acuteness of the speaker than to benefit the teacher who has given the lesson. But this has soon righted itself, and almost always without the necessity of intervention on my part.

The following is a list of the Conversational Readings to the whole of the students on the art of teaching and governing in a school, which form the quarter's course; five being delivered on five several days in each of twelve weeks, three by the Principal, and two by the Vice-principal. The first 36 form the course given by the Principal, and the remaining 24, that by the Vice-principal. At the commencement of each quarter these courses are begun again.

1. On the objects which a teacher should have in view in adopting his profession.
2. On the circumstances which make a teacher happy in a school.
3. On some of the essential moral qualifications of a teacher.
4. On the essential intellectual qualifications of a teacher.
5. On the establishment of authority.
6. On gaining ascendency over the minds of children.
7. On combination and arrangement.
8. On routines of instruction and formation of plans.
9. On the monitorial system—its use and abuse.
10. On the selection of monitors.
11. On the training of monitors.
12. On the collective or simultaneous system.
13. On the art of teaching the elements of reading to very young children.
14. Illustrations of the mode of using the First Lesson Book.
15. On various methods of teaching spelling.
16. On the mode of using the Second Lesson Book.
17. On object-lessons for young children.

by which such results have been obtained. There are some truths, of course, only to be demonstrated by the higher mathematics. These are quite beyond our reach, and are either entirely omitted or explained by the nearest analogical approximation. But in numerons instances, perhaps most, the principle of a method admits of illustration by means of very elementary mathematical knowledge. Thus the students learn, not only that the sun and planets are at such a distance, but the manner in which such results are obtained is given, and shown to involve only the same principles as are employed in the simplest land surveying.

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18. On the interrogative system, with illustrations.
19. On analytical teaching generally, with illustrations from the Third Lesson Book.
20. On synthetical teaching; illustrations from the Third Lesson Book.
21. On the art of reading with animation and expression.
22. On Scripture questioning, generally; on Scripture geography, and methods of teaching it.
23. On teaching writing.
24. On the use and nature of numbers.
25. On teaching arithmetic.
26. On the mode of using the Fourth Lesson Book.
27. On teaching geography.
28. On teaching grammar.
29. On teaching drawing.
30. On teaching vocal music.
31. On the philosophy of the human mind as applicable to education.
32. On attention and memory
33. On association.
34. On conception.
35. On imagination.
36. On the principal writers on education.
37. On rewards and punishments.
38. On emulation.
39. On common errors relating to punishments, and on corporeal punishments.
40. On moral and religious influence generally.
41. On the promotion of a love of truth, honesty, benevolence, and other virtues, among children.
42. On cleanliness and neatness, kindness to animals, and gentleness.
43. On promoting obedience to parents, respectful demeanor to elders, and general submission to authority.
44. On the private studies of a teacher.
45. On the course to be pursued in organizing a new school.
46. On keeping the various registers of attendance and progress.
47. On the ventilation of school-rooms and dwellings.
48. On school furniture generally.
49. On some of the circumstances which affect the condition of the laboring classes.
50. On the elements of political economy.
51. On machinery and its results.
52. On cottage economy and savings' banks.
53. On the duties of the teacher to the parents of the children, and to the Committee.
54. On the formation of museums and collections of apparatus, and the management of school libraries.
55. On keeping up a connexion with old scholars.
56. On the *order* in which a teacher should attempt to accomplish the various objects he has in view.
57. On school examinations generally.
58. On raising and filling a school, and on the circumstances which make a school popular.
59. On the various ways in which a teacher may co-operate with other benevolent efforts, such as temperance societies and Sabbath schools.
60. Brief summary of the teacher's duties *in* school, *out of* school, and in relation to the children, their parents, the Committee, and to society at large.

The 4½ hours devoted to daily practice by the students in the monitorial labors of the model school, with an occasional gallery lesson, has already been described; and several times a week the Principal casts a careful glance around their drafts, and makes notes of the defects observable in them, to form the subject of observations in the conversational lecture of the evening. If the students were staying, as they ought to stay, for two years, instead of six months, this amount of time spent in the model school would be in excess; and the actual amount of valuable time devoted to its labors, is a sacrifice which challenges a vigilant superintendence and an amount of ambulatory instruction which shall turn it to the best account. The practice in gallery teaching is necessarily unfrequent, where there are only three classes placed under it every morning; but over this, also, the same eye is extended at like intervals: and every afternoon, at half-past three o'clock, occurs the gallery lesson, by a student teacher, in the presence of the Principal or the Vice-principal and the whole body of the students, expressly to form the subject of mutual criticism, and of a final critique by Mr. Cornwell, on adjourning to the theatre at 4. In the theatre, after taking the criticisms of the students on the lesson just delivered, which seem generally to be limited to the superficial defects of grammar, pronunciation, or want of order in the gallery, the Principal or Vice-principal makes a far more searching exposure of its essential defects, which are carefully analyzed; and concludes by throwing in the remarks required by his miscellaneous notes on the class and gallery teaching of the day. He then proceeds with the conversational lecture for the day, into each of which the student's limited period of residence compels him to throw a large amount of instruction, so tersely expressed, and yet so condensed, as to require all the earnestness of the young men at once to seize and assimilate it. No one, however, can be present at one of these conversational lectures without being struck by the weightiness of the matter which it contains, and the aphoristic vigor with which it is endeavored, not merely to lay it before, but to engrave it into the minds of the hearers.

The tenor of the course may be gathered from the results contemplated in the following set of queries, drawn up by the Principal, and contained in the Society's "Manual:"

Questions to test a School.

The following questions have been drawn up for the use alike of Committees and teachers. They indicate the points to which a teacher should direct his attention, and the course a Committee should take in order to ascertain the condition of a school. The questions are supposed to be put to the teacher:

Reading:

Do you *define* and *limit* the portion to be read? Is the portion assigned of such *moderate length* as to allow of its being read three or four times?

Do your monitors question readily on the lessons that have been read?

Have you the *specimens*, *models*, or *diagrams*, that are necessary to illustrate such lesson?

Do you rest satisfied if one boy is reading in the draft, or do you see that *every child is attentive* while one is reading? Do you also forbid the monitors approaching the boy who is reading, and require him always to stand where he has a view of the whole draft?

Do you pay attention to the *style* of reading, particularly with the elder boys?

Do you correct a bad style by having very *familiar* sentences read?

By requiring the boys to *tell* you something, to write it down, and then to read it from *their own writing?*

Do you teach the *meanings* of words in connexion with the reading, as found *in sentences*, rather than with the *spelling* in which the arrangements must be arbitrary?

Do you point out on the map all the places occurring in the lesson read?

Do the boys exhibit seriousness of manner while reading the Bible?

Spelling:

Do you sometimes teach and test spelling by the *dictation* of sentences to be written?

Do the elder boys sometimes *copy* pieces of poetry and the exercises in grammar, with a view to improvement in spelling?

Do you have the more difficult words that occur in your collective lessons spelt?

Interrogation:

Do you or your monitors, question on every *subject* taught?

Do you occasionally require *mutual* questioning on the part of the elder boys?

Does your questioning include the *three* different stages? 1. During reading, the explanation of such words or allusions as are necessary to *understanding* the lesson? 2. After the books are closed, with a view to *impressing* the *facts* of the lesson on the memory? 3. The explanation of the *etymologies* of words and the imparting such *incidental* information as is naturally associated with it?

Do you avoid indefinite questions, and such as by admitting of only "Yes!" or "No!" encourage guessing?

Writing:

Are the books kept clean, free from blots, and without the corners being turned down?*

Do you furnish the boys with good copies, avoiding those which have improper contractions?

Have you a black board on which you write in chalk a copy for the lower boys who are unable to write?

Arithmetic:

Do you teach arithmetic by the black board? Have you one in each draft?

Do you in teaching arithmetic commence with and constantly refer to *sensible objects?*

Are the numbers in your *lower* classes always those of *little value?*

Do you invariably insist on every number being *read* to ascertain whether its value is understood?

Do your monitors *question* at every step in the process of a sum? *e. g.* Why do you carry only one when you borrow ten?

Are the *terms* and *marks* explained? *e. g. What do £. s. d. mean?* Why is the rule called compound subtraction? What are these "marks" used for?

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* The books may be kept smooth by tying them up between two pieces of board.

Do you connect the book knowledge of the more advanced boys with the objects around them? *e.g.* What is the quantity of timber in the trunk of a tree whose height and girth, both at the root and part where it branches off, have been measured by themselves? The number of gallons the school water-butt will hold? The contents of a field, whose shape and sides they have ascertained?

Grammar:

Do you *explain* every definition, rule, &c., *before* allowing the boys to commit them to memory?

Do you make your boys understand that language determines grammar, and not grammar language? That the rules of grammar are only the recognized usages of language?

In explaining the etymologies of words are you extremely careful to give the right *quantities* and *terminations* of the roots?

Geography:

Do you teach the *physical* features of any district first?

Do you make the boys acquainted with their own *neighborhood* and *country* before attending to more distant parts?

Have you a map of the neighborhood in the school?

In commencing geography do you require the boys to make a map of the play-ground, or some well-known part? Do you explain latitude and longitude by a reference to this map?

Do you require the boys occasionally to point towards the place under consideration? *e.g.* When Dublin has been pointed out on the map, do you say, *Now point to Dublin itself?*

Drawing:

Do you commence with *chalk* drawing on the black board?

Are your monitors so proficient as to be able to *sketch off* any object illustrative of their lesson?

Collective Teaching:

Do you abstain from teaching collectively those subjects which depend for their improvement on the amount of *individual practice*, as reading, spelling, &c.?

Do you test the *efficiency* of your collective teaching by *individual questions?*

Do you sometimes require the elder boys to make a written *abstract* of their lesson? Is this looked over with a view to the spelling among other things?

Do you make use of *ellipses?* the *number* varying inversely as the age of the child?

Are your collective lessons to the *whole* school especially devoted to subjects connected with *manners*, *morals* and *religion?* Do those to the *younger* boys relate to the various familiar objects, utensils, and operations about them? Are those to the elder boys given *systematically?* *i. e.* Is each lesson part of a system of knowledge?

Is your collective teaching especially characterized by *simplicity* both of language and illustration, and by *animation?* *

In using numbers do you make them intelligible by referring them to *known standards?* *e.g.* If you were stating that some trees are near 300 feet high, would you say that they were twice, three or four times, as the case may be, as high as some well-known object?

Monitors:

Do you devote an *hour a day* specially to the training of your monitors?

Is it your prime object in this training to give your monitors the *art of teaching*, and do you make the impartation of knowledge subservient to this?

Do you train every monitor in the *very lessons* he has to teach?

Is the mass of your school employed in some *quiet* exercise, as writing, while you are engaged with the monitors?

Have you a good general monitor to whom you can intrust the mass of the school during your training of the monitors?

Do you require the same monitor to teach the *same lesson* that he may be thoroughly competent to that lesson?

Have you a *double set* of monitors, that while one set is teaching the other is learning?

Do you from time to time, add to your monitor's class, to act as *auxiliaries*, in the absence of the regular monitors, such boys as you deem likely to be suited to the office?

Do you associate with the office of monitor as many *pleasing* circumstances as you can?

Do you pay them? Have they as such the use of the school library? Do you treat them with marked consideration? Do you occasionally accompany them in little excursions, to places in your neighborhood distinguished in history, or for beautiful scenery, or to museums, gardens, &c.?

Do you impress on your monitors that they should correct no mistake till they have ascertained that none of the boys in their draft can? Do you exemplify this in your own teaching?

Discipline:

Is order the *habit* of your school?

Have you perfect *quietness* during writing?

Do you *drill* your boys occasionally, with a view to securing habits of prompt obedience?

Do you have the movements to and from the desks made in an orderly way? Do you generally have the tables *repeated* or sung simultaneously at this time? Do you sometimes have the movements made with perfect quietness, as a means of discipline? Are all the exercises conducted as *quietly* as is consistent with the full development of the powers of the children?

Do you have all those subjects which depend for their improvement upon *practice*, such as reading, spelling, &c., taught *individually?*

Is every exercise conducted *under observation*, that the boys may feel that any inattention or disorder is certain of detection?

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* Many of the points suggested here are as important in connexion with other kinds of teaching as in collective; but as the evils of neglecting them would be increased in proportion to the number taught, it has been deemed advisable to throw them under this head.

Have all the children at all times someting to do, and a motive for doing it?

Do you abstain from giving a second command till the *first* has been obeyed?

Do you abstain from *calling out*, except on puite necessary occasions?

In stopping or directing the whole school, do you give your commands so loud as to be heard by all, and no *louder*?

Are you *strict*, without being *severe*?

If you find the general discipline becoming at all lax, do you have those exercises which are most faulty, gone through as you wish them, *after* the regular *school hours*?

Habits of the School:

Is your room *clean*?

Do you have it well *swept*, and *dusted* every day?

Do you see all the school *furniture* put in its proper place, before you leave the school-room?

Is your room well *ventilated*?

Do the boys exhibit *subdued and gentle manners* in their intercourse with each other?

Are the boys generally *clean* in their *persons* and *dress*?

Do you carefully prevent *idling* about the school, or in or near the gates, &c., or in the play-ground?

Are your boys orderly and *respectful* to their superiors?

Do you discourage *tale-telling*, except in reference to very serious faults?

Do you keep your drafts of about a *uniform size*, not less than nine, nor more than twelve?

Do you take care that boys of the same class are of about the same *attainments*, and in a collective lesson of the same *mental capacity*?

Have you the *form* of the drafts distinctly *marked* on the floor, by cutting into it, painting it, or letting a wire into it?

Examinations:

Have you *stated periods* of *examination*, in order to the removal of the competent to higher classes?

Do the children *know* these *periods*, that they may work with a view to them?

Are the intervals between these periods of such *moderate length in a child's estimation*, as to influence his exertions?

Have the parents any means of knowing when their children are advanced?

Have you an evening examination, at least once a year, for the parents and friends of the children?

General:

Do you require every *error* to be *corrected* by the boy *making it*, after it has been corrected by another?

Is every matter *explained before* it is committed to memory?

Do you keep up your connexion with the *old scholars*, by occasional meetings, or in any other way? Are they allowed the use of the school library?

Do your children *love* you? Have you a strong *sympathy* for children, and pleasure in their company?

Is your teaching *intellectual*? Do the children really *understand* what they are learning? Do you make every subject taught a means of *intellectual development*?

Do your children come to school *regularly* and in time?

Do you give time and attention to subjects according to their *relative importance*? e. g. Reading above every thing, the history and circumstances of your own town or locality in preference to more distant parts?

Do you rather aim at giving the boys a *good* acquaintance with a *few* subjects, than a very superficial acquaintance with many?

Are your exercises generally characterized by *little repeating* and *much questioning*?

Do you keep a *register* of the *attendances* of the children, and of their school *payments*?

Do you rest satisfied if you obtain an *answer* to a question *from one*, or do you repeat and remodel the question till the matter is *understood by all*? Do you impress this maxim upon your monitors, *that all teaching is for the whole class*?

Model School.

The "Boys' School" connected with this establishment probably stands unrivalled in England, as a model of order and discipline, and of the collective instruction of a large number of children on the monitorial system. It is composed of 760 boys, from the age of six to twelve or thirteen years. The register is always full, and the attendance is regular and punctual, (averaging daily 700,) although the children are gathered from one of the poorest neighborhoods of the city. The school is not free, (except when there are more than two from the same family,) and yet being *good*, there is no difficulty in collecting in advance the fee of 2*d*. per week. On account of the large number of classes into which the school is divided the normal pupils enjoy unrivalled opportunities, both of observation and practice of the method of instruction pursued, which are not exclusively monitorial, but a mixed system of the monitorial and simultaneous, in which, however, the monitorial is the ground-work of the whole.

Female Department of the Normal School.

The mode of obtaining admission, conditions, organization and instruction of this department are substantially the same as those in the male department. The immediate class instruction and practice are conducted under female teachers, while the pupils of this department attend daily in the theatre, or lecture hall on the lectures on the art of teaching given to the young men. In addition to, or modification of the course pursued by the young men, the female Normal pupils are instructed in the art of teaching needlework; in the best method of training girls to household duties; and especially in those methods of communicating religious knowledge, which, under the blessing of God, are most likely not only to make the young acquainted with, and interested in Holy Scripture, but to bring them practically under the influence of its sacred truths.

Mr. Fletcher, in his Report describes a peculiar practice of the Model Girls' School:—

Nor must I omit from express notice the perfect system of industrial instruction in needlework, and the economy of clothing, through which the whole school is passed. The outline of it given in the Society's "Manual of the System of Teaching in the Model Girls' School." is no paper theory, but a simple description of a well-ordered and vigorous set of classes, embracing the whole school, for an hour and a half every morning. "When at needlework the children are seated at desks, arranged in classes, according to their proficiency. The first or lowest class is seated further from the platform, and the others, in numerical order, in front of it. The number of classes depends on the different kinds of work taught in the school, each kind occupying a separate class. The number in general use is 11. From the higher classes the best workers are selected for monitors; two are appointed for each class. One instructs for one week, whilst the other is at work under the direction of her monitor; consequently each superintends the class and works alternately; and each monitor continues at the same desk until she is appointed monitor to a higher class. Every girl continues to sit at the same desk while she remains in the class. There are also two platform monitors, who alternately superintend and work one week. But all the monitors of classes, and the girls under their care, are under the superintendence of the general monitor. Every Friday morning the girls are allowed to bring their own work.

The children in the higher classes are provided with lap-bags, made of brown holland. These are marked 1, 2, 3, &c., for as many as the desk contains. The number of the desk is also marked upon them; thus $\frac{5}{8}$ signifies that the bag belongs to the fifth girl in the eighth desk. Before the children take their seats, the bags are placed by the platform monitor on the class monitor's desks, and by them given to their girls. The class work and all garments in hand, are collected by the class monitors, and placed on the ends of the desks ready for the platform monitor to deliver to the mistress. The monitor of each desk is furnished with a pair of scissors, thread-paper, needle-case, and a bag large enough to contain all the implements that belong to her desk. They are also supplied with a few thimbles and needles, for which they are responsible to the platform monitor. The children in the lower classes use colored cotton for the class work, as it renders the stitches more conspicuous, and consequently facilitates general inspection. It also excites an interest, as the promise of a choice of some pretty color is a strong inducement to a child to perform her work neatly.

At the time assigned for closing the labor of the morning reading drafts, viz., at a quarter past 10 o'clock, the general monitor rings the bell as a signal for the business of the drafts to cease; and, after a pause, the command is given for the girls to turn to the right or to the left, as the order may be. The order is then given, and the whole of the children walk in a line along the passage round the school, and each girl, as she comes to the end of it, steps in behind the desk to which she belongs, and goes to her proper place at the desk. Each monitor does the same, taking her place at the head of the desk. Each child being now opposite to her own slate, a command is given to take their seats, which they do instantly.

A signal is now given for the monitors to distribute the bags, after which they return to their seats, and another signal is given for each girl to tie her own bag to the desk before her. A signal is again given for the monitors to examine their girls' hands to see if they are clean, and that each is provided with a needle and thimble. The platform monitor now supplies the class monitors with any additional work they may require for their girls, which the class monitors give out; also a needleful of cotton to each child, and then return to their seats. A command is now given for the whole school to show work, that is, to hold it up in their left hand to see that each is furnished with work. The bell is then rung, each child holds down her work and immediately begins; and the monitors pass down the desks to instruct them. When a child wants work she holds up her left hand as an intimation to her monitor, who steps forward and supplies her. If a monitor wants a fresh supply she makes a like signal to the platform monitor. When a girl wants thread she holds up her right hand, and her monitor supplies her. If a monitor wants a fresh supply she makes a like signal to the platform monitor. At half past 11 o'clock the mistress examines the work of each child; those who merit rewards have a ticket, and those who have been careless and inattentive forfeit one, or are confined after school.

At a quarter before 12 the bell rings for the girls to show work, and the monitors to pass down the desks and collect the needles and thimbles An order is then given for the children to put the class work into the bags, and the monitors to collect all articles in hand, and deliver them to the platform monitor, who takes them to the platform. The monitors then take their seats. The order is now given to untie bags, when each child unties her own; a second order is given to take them off; and a third, to fold them up. Each child folds her own neatly, with the number in view, places it on the desk before her, and puts her hands behind her. The bell then rings for the monitors to collect bags, which they do, placing them one on the other in order; they then put them neatly into the bag belonging to their desk; also their scissors, thread-papers, needles and thimbles. The monitors are then ordered to the platform with their bags, where they deliver them to the platferm monitor. They then return to their seats, and the report of the good and inattentive girls is read *aloud* by the monitor-general; the good receive tickets, and the negligent must either forfeit tickets or stay in after school hours. As soon as the reports are taken, all the children are exercised out of their seats, to stand each opposite to her own slate, with her hands behind her. A signal is given for the girls to turn, when they are dismissed in order, one class following the other in a line along the sides of the school."

For the details of the instruction in each class, I must refer you to the "Manual." The first class is for hemming, in two divisions, one composed of those who have not learned to fix a hem, and who are taught on waste paper, as being less expensive than linen or cotton, and answering the purpose just as well; and a second, in which they practice hemming on small pieces of calico. The second class, also in two divisions, is for sewing and felling, and running and felling; first division learning to fix their work in paper, and the second to execute it. The third class is for drawing threads and stitching; the fourth for gathering and fixing gathers; the fifth, for button-holes; the sixth, for making buttons and sewing them on; the seventh, for herring-bone stitching; the eighth, for darning; the ninth, for making tucks, and whipping; and the tenth, for marking. The eleventh is the finishing class. There is at present no knitting or netting class; and fancy work is expressly excluded and discouraged.

"As it is highly desirable that the children, as soon as they have learned to work, should be employed in something useful, this class comprises the girls who have passed through the preceding, and are here engaged in making and completing garments. The children in this class are taught economy in purchasing, cutting out, and repairing various articles of wearing apparel; they are made acquainted with the waste occasioned by the want of proper consideration and exactness in domestic arrangements, and the miseries frequently produced by mismanagement and inattention. In order to impress upon their minds this useful branch of female instruction, they are interrogated, in various ways, on the common concerns of life. When the teacher proposes a question, she waits until each child in the class has had an opportunity of returning an answer, according to the knowledge she possesses. She then comments upon each of these answers in a way that will enable the *children* to decide which is the most suitable course. To assist the teachers in these exercises, they are furnished with a few examples of questions and answers, which they may carry out to a much greater extent." These also will be found in the "Manual," together with engraved patterns for cutting out the commonest garments. The highest industrial section of the school forms in fact a class for collective teaching of the most practical and improving kind, including as many ideas on household management generally as can be conveyed. Specimens of needlework, made up in portfolios for the use of teachers, and arranged in the order of the above classes, are sold at the Society's Depository; and the beautiful patterns of every variety of garment, made up in tissue paper by the finishing class against the time of the annual meeting, are quite little works of art.

The propriety and industry exhibited throughout these industrial classes is as perfect as their system; and a student teacher in each class has the advantage of co-operating in, and doing as much as she can of, the work of superintending each successive class, from the lowest upwards; the sewing classes, in this respect, presenting no peculiarity distinguishing them from those devoted to other exercises. The discipline and moral tone of this school present throughout a standard well worthy of its exemplar character. It has a library of above 250 carefully selected volumes, besides a small library of reference for its monitors. Great advantage, too, must arise from a certain small proportion of the children being retained in connexion with the institution until a riper age, and even then not giving up their intercourse with it. In fact, the whole department is a family as much as a school; and no higher praise can possibly be bestowed upon it.

Art of Teaching and Governing a School.

Three hours and a half each day are devoted by the female students to practice in monitorial or gallery teaching in the Girls' Model School; and in alternate weeks another hour and a half is given daily, by each of the two classes, to the practical labors of the needlework drafts. At the close of the afternoon's gallery lesson, they all adjourn to the theatre, on the back seats of which they take their places to hear the criticism on the gallery lesson which has been given by one of the young men, followed by the lecture on "pedagogy" for the day, in the course already described.

A like criticism of the afternoon's gallery teaching, and of the draft teaching for the day, in the model girls' school, is taken on the opening of the evening classes. It is conducted with some spirit, and the concluding remarks of the normal school teacher, Miss Drew, are exceedingly acute and judicious. A weekly conversational lecture occupies two hours of every Saturday morning, and is given by the experienced superintendent, Mrs. Mac Rae, to the whole of the female student teachers, seated at their needlework in the gallery. The following are the heads of her course :—

1. On the various motives for entering on the profession of a teacher.
2. On some of the essential moral qualifications of a teacher.
3. On the selection of monitors.
4. On organizing a new school.
5. On training monitors.
6. On teaching the elements of reading, with illustrations of the method of using the First Lesson Book.
7. On the various methods of teaching spelling, with illustrations.
8. On training suitable monitors to assist in teaching needlework.
9. On teaching arithmetic.
10. On domestic economy and orderly habits.
11. On school furniture, and the order of a school-room.
12. On the cleanliness of a school-room, and ventilation.
13. On the duties of monitors.
14. On the various offices in the school.
15. On improving an old school.
16. On the judicious treatment of the monitors.
17. On the duties of a teacher to the committee, and to the parents of the children.
18. On a week's occupation in the model school, and the advantages of cultivating a spirit of inquiry.

These lessons of the superintendent, *applying* all which the students are learning in the normal school, to the circumstances into which they are about to be introduced, are highly interesting, vividly instructive, and imbued with a truly Christian spirit. Drawing from the experiences of a quick and refined perception, they embody indeed practical lessons of adherence, to unfailing truth and untiring patience, from which others than teachers might profit. The following is the Examination Paper on the Art of Teaching and Governing in a School, answered by Ann Inglefield, 25th March, 1837 :—

1. How will a teacher best establish her authority in a school ?—By firmness, joined with kindness of manner and impartiality in all her conduct; giving her commands clearly and definitely; expecting prompt and cheerful obedience ; let the children see that principle governs her conduct: this, with good information and a pleasing manner of communicating, are not likely to fail of success in establishing the authority of a teacher in her school.

2. What will especially demand your vigilance in giving a collective lesson ?—That the attention of the children be kept alive by the interesting information and manner of the teacher; that the supervision be constant, and the order preserved.

3. How will you endeavor to have good monitors ?—By efficient training and interesting them in the work, imparting to them superior information, and reposing confidence in them when found worthy.

4. State some of the uses of the monitorial system, and of the defects which may be indulged under it ?—A greater number of children can be instructed at one time than by one individual.

The monitors acquire the art of communicating the information they gain : they must be examples to their drafts ; and by these means they are likely to prove, as they grow up, more useful members of society.

The defect would arise from the mistress indulging self-ease and neglecting her monitors, or leaving too much of the school duties to them.

5. How will you endeavor to get good reading in a school ?—By attending to the punctuation, emphasis. rising and falling inflection, aspirates and non-aspirates, and tones of the voice.

6. What will demand especial attention in the arithmetic classes ?—That the children perfectly understand the rules and their uses.

7. How will you convey to children the first notions of geography ?—By illustration, as describing the earth by an orange.

8. What powers of the mind should an object lesson be directed to cultivate ?—Observation, attention, reflection.

It is difficult to imagine a combination of advantages greater than that enjoyed by the student teachers in the female department of this institution, including, as it does, the animated and faithful instruction of the principal teacher of the normal school and the vice-principal of the companion department, the lectures on teaching and governing in a school, delivered to the students in both departments by the principal and vice-principal of the normal school for young men, an admirable model school, and the faithful counsels conveyed by the superintendent in her daily management and weekly addresses. The effect of this combination is indeed very marked, if the superior activity and orderliness of mind shown by the senior over the junior section, during my presence in the school, afford any fair measure of its amount. Considering however, that the female students, though as much instructed as the male students, and possessed of superior manners, are yet not generally equal to them in physical resources, and in the enthusiastic energy which brings a considerable proportion of the latter into the field of instruction, it is not less to be regretted in their case than in the male department, that the young teachers have not the advantages of a longer stay to strengthen their acquirements, their capacities of teaching, and, I might even add, their general character, before they enter upon the arduous duties of their very responsible situations. The time of their stay is far too short to accomplish all that is desirable in these respects; although the means provided are, I sincerely believe, sufficient, with God's blessing, to render them able, modest, and Christian teachers. Among the circumstances incidentally conducive to this result, I would recall especial attention to the fair proportion of *pupil* teachers to be found in the model school, at the head of the monitor's class, giving a moral firmness, as well as intellectual strength, to its organization, eminently beneficial to the *student* teachers, at the same time that they enjoy the further advantage of the head teachers of the normal and model schools themselves daily superintending, correcting, and teaching in the classes.

It is a leading object in the management of this institution to train up a race of teachers who shall not only elevate the office by the respectability of their attainments. but adorn it by the fervor of their poetry. Each candidate is presented, on admission, with a copy of the following hints, accompanying the regulations to which he will be expected to attend :

I. *Let your mind frequently and seriously revert to the* OBJECTS *which are to be obtained by your residence in the Society's House.*—You have at once to acquire and to communicate, to learn and to teach, to govern and to submit to government ; and you have to do this, not in relation to one mind only, but to many minds,—of different quality, under varying circumstances, —as an exemplar, and as subordinate to others. You have MUCH to do. Therefore—

II. *Redeem your Time.*—Do not think it sufficient to attend regularly and diligently to *appointed* studies, but improve the intervals of time which will necessarily elapse between these stated employments. Secure the minutes, for minutes compose hours. Ten minutes, diligently improved every day, will amount to an hour in the course of a week; and an hour thus redeemed *every day*, will be equal in value to no small portion of a year.

III. *Cultivate Habits of Order.*—Avoid negligence in personal appearance. Be always neat and clean in your apparel. Let those pursuits which are most important in reference to your expected engagements receive the greatest share of your attention ; and never suffer these to be interrupted or superseded by others of a more general nature. Do not allow levity and trifling to usurp the place of rational cheerfulness. "Avoid the very appearance of evil." Attend to all established regulations. He who wilfully breaks rules which are calculated to promote the welfare of the community to which he belongs, is the common enemy of all.

IV. *Cherish a kind and friendly disposition towards your Associates.*—Let this be shown by a general spirit of courtesy,—a willingness to assist where help may be needed, and especially by the communication to others of any knowledge you may exclusively possess. Manifest a decided disapprobation of unbecoming conduct wherever you observe it ; and, jealous for the honor of the body to which you belong, endeavor to stimulate every pupil to diligence and zeal in the pursuit of those great objects for the attainment of which all are alike receiving the countenance and aid of the Society.

V. *Exercise a constant Spirit of* "*Watchfulness unto Prayer.*—Remembering that you are responsible to God for the right improvement of the advantages you enjoy, the talents you possess, and the time placed at your disposal ; seek daily for "the wisdom which cometh from above," and "the grace which bringeth salvation." Be yourself a diligent and devotional student of that book you are emphatically to teach ; and never forget that "all Scripture is given by inspiration of God, and is profitable for doctrine, for reproof, for correction, for instruction in righteousness ; that the man of God may be perfect, thoroughly furnished unto good works." (2 Tim. iii. 16, 17.)

Periodical examinations of the student teachers take place in the presence of the Committee, and upon the results of these examinations its members appear to base their assertion, that by the efforts of the Society, restricted as those efforts may ever have been by external obstacles and internal want of resources, "more elevated views of the teacher's office and duty have been promulgated; a greater moral power has been given to popular instruction; and, as a necessary consequence, the school-master has been in some measure raised in public estimation, though not by any means so much as the importance of the office deserves. Letters from all parts of the country have borne testimony to the patience, diligence, and piety of many of the laborers whom the Society have sent forth. The best evidence, however, of the general satisfaction which has been given, is to be found in the increasing applications for teachers, which pour in from all quarters; a demand largely exceeding the ability of the Committee to supply."

If by any means its resources could be so augmented, and its duties so shared with supplemental institutions, that it could retain its student teachers on terms consistent with their interests and those of the schools to be supplied, for quadruple the time of their present stay,—for two years instead of six months,—such an arrangement alone would ultimately be productive of incalculable advantage to that great branch of the popular education of England which comes under its influence.

The teachers trained in the institution, resident in and near the metropolis, enjoy the advantage of periodical meetings in the theatre of the institution for professional discussions; as likewise of attendance at a course of lectures provided by the Society each winter since 1837, for their gratification and instruction. During the summer vacation a number of male teachers of British schools, from various parts of the country, known to the Committee through their inspectors, as persons who would really profit by such an opportunity for supplemental study, are invited to a rapid course of instruction in the art of teaching and governing in a school, and to take up their residence in the Society's house during its continuance. This opportunity of revising and improving upon their actual methods is of great value; and those who have enjoyed the advantages of it are warm in acknowledging them. Indeed, the British school teachers throughout the kingdom generally, maintain relations with the parent Society, because it is the centre of all applications for new teachers, and, therefore, the principal source of promotion.

NORMAL AND MODEL SCHOOLS,

OF THE

HOME AND COLONIAL INFANT AND JUVENILE SCHOOL SOCIETY.

The Home and Colonial Infant and Juvenile School Society, under whose auspices the Normal and Model Schools described below are conducted, was founded in 1836, and has since that time educated upwards of two thousand teachers for Infant and Juvenile Schools. The Committee in their first Report, made in February, 1837, state with much force the reasons that suggested the formation of the Society. "The Committee may without fear of contradiction assert, that few situations in life require so much discretion, so much energy, so much tenderness, so much self-control, and love, as that of a teacher of babes; that to guide and govern an infant-school well calls for wisdom to discern, versatility to modify, firmness to persevere, judgment to decide; and they may add that no uneducated or undisciplined mind can supply the incessant care, the watchful diligence, the unwearied patience necessary to manage young children."

One of the first duties of the Committee of the Society was to reduce infant instruction to a system, the necessity for which must have been obvious to all who have observed the trifling desultory way in which infant schools were too often conducted by untrained teachers. For this purpose it was absolutely necessary to found a model infant-school, and also to prepare a set of text-books for the use of teachers. Both these objects were carried out, and the Society having constantly kept in view the necessity of improving their system, now possess an admirable Model Infant School, a Juvenile School for children between six and ten years, in which the plan adpoted with the infants is carried out in its development with those of riper years; and have published a series of text-books for the use of infant-teachers, obviously drawn up with the utmost care, and excellently fitted for the purpose in view.

The establishment is located in Grays Inn Road, and contains accommodation for a Model Infant School for children between the ages of two and six; for a Juvenile Model School for children between the age of six and sixteen, and for sixty persons sent to be trained as teachers. The following documents, published by the Society, exhibit the qualifications of candidates, and the course of instruction pursued in both the Model School, and the Training Department.

Qualifications of Candidates who enter the Institution to be recommended by the Committee to Schools, and the Conditions under which they are admitted.

The Committee receive into their Institution, in Gray's Inn Road, near King's Cross, for a limited period, persons either desirous to enter for the first time upon the work, or those who, having engaged in it, feel their own deficiency, and are anxious for improvement.

In order to prevent disappointment and mistakes, the Committee think it necessary to state what they consider the necessary qualifications of candidates, and the conditions under which they are received.

Qualifications.—1. *Religious and Moral Principles.*—As the primary object of early education is to cultivate religious principles and moral sentiments; to awaken the tender mind to a sense of its evil dispositions and habitual failings, before it is become callous by its daily intercourse with vice; and to lead it to that Savior who so tenderly received such little ones, and blessed them; to accustom them to trace the hand of their heavenly Father in his works of providence and grace; and to be impressed with the truth that his eye is ever upon them; since such is the *primary object*, an object which if unattempted, early education is valueless; the Committee consider that, in addition to an unimpeachable and moral character, *decided piety* is indispensable, and that without it no teacher can be fitted for the work.

2. *Natural Disposition and Abilities.*—There are certain qualifications of temper looked for in the teacher of young children. The power of sympathy is felt by all, but its effect upon children is almost incalculable; on this account an animated lively manner, tempered by self-possession, and a cheerful good humor, combined with gentle firmness, are very important. To these should be added, that natural fondness for children which leads to a participation in all their little pleasures and pains, and bears patiently with their infirmities and ill humors. It is also particularly necessary that *infant* school teachers should possess an aptitude to teach, the ability of drawing out and directing the powers of children, a quickness of perception to see the effect of the instruction they are giving, and a readiness in availing themselves of accidental circumstances to awaken moral sentiment, or draw out some intellectual faculty.

Acquirements.—It would be desirable that a candidate should be able to read, to write a tolerable hand, to sing, should know the simple rules of arithmetic, be well acquainted with the Word of God, and possess some information in grammar, geography, and natural history.

It will be seen that they think the office of teacher requires certain indispensable natural qualifications and some attainments; and, having this opinion, the Committee would earnestly entreat those interested in the cause of early education to patronize only such persons as their judgment can fully approve, every facility for the improvement of those who devote themselves to the work being now afforded on reasonable terms.

Conditions.—1. The Committee receive candidates in the first instance on probation; and on or before the expiration of a month, their qualifications are reported on by the superintendent in communication with the master of the model school; and if the report be satisfactory, they are allowed to continue; if not, they leave the Institution.

2. All candidates who are to be recommended to schools are to remain twenty-four weeks in the house, and the Committee can not receive any who will not come in for that time. The wives of married candidates remain such time as the Committee decide in each case, if they can not remain—as it is much to be desired that they should—the whole time.

3. The charge is reduced to 7*s.* a week, making £8 8*s.* for the twenty-four weeks, which includes every expense, except washing.

4. Married men are now admitted to be trained as teachers of juvenile schools, without their wives, on the above terms, viz. 7*s.* a week, for twenty-four weeks, finding their own lodgings.

5. Unmarried men are not trained in the Institution.

6. Six young females, not exceeding seventeen years of age, are received as pupil teachers for one, two, or three years, according to their age, at an annual charge of £25, which includes washing and books.

7. The admission of teachers for short periods having been found very inconvenient to the arrangements of the Institution, and attended with comparatively little benefit, the Committee do not receive teachers for less than six weeks, unless they have actually the care of schools, and are, in consequence, unable to remain for that time.

8. The return of teachers to the Institution contributing greatly to their improvement, the Committee agree to allow all teachers who have been regularly trained there to re-enter for one month, at a charge of £1 only, or six weeks for £1 10*s.*, whether the money is paid by the teachers or from school funds.

COURSE of INSTRUCTION for the TEACHERS in training at the HOME and COLONIAL INFANT and JUVENILE SCHOOL SOCIETY.

I. SCRIPTURE.—The authenticity of the Bible and the evidences of Christianity; a general view of the different books of the Bible; a daily Scripture text with remarks, chiefly of a practical nature; instruction in the most important doctrines of the Bible to promote real religion, the lessons especially bearing upon the duties and trials of teachers.

II. WRITING AND SPELLING.

III. LANGUAGE.—Grammar; etymology; composition.

IV. NUMBER.—Mental arithmetic; ciphering.

V. FORM.—Lines and angles; superficies; solids.

VI. NATURAL HISTORY.—Mammals; birds; plants.

VII. ELEMENTARY DRAWING.—For the cultivation of taste and invention; as an imitative art.

VIII. VOCAL MUSIC.—Singing; the notation of music.

IX. GEOGRAPHY.—A general view of the world; England and its colonies; Palestine.

X. OBJECTS.—The parts, qualities, and uses of common objects; the essential properties of matter.

XI.—EDUCATIONAL LESSONS.—Principles of education as founded on the nature of children; on the government of children, and moral training; on subjects for lessons; on graduated instruction; on methods of teaching; on writing and giving lessons.

XII. PHYSICAL EXERCISES.

First or Lowest Class.—Six Weeks.

The students in this class are chiefly occupied in receiving instruction for their own improvement, with a view to their future training.

H. M. *Morning.*

8 15. The business of the day is commenced with a text from Scripture, and remarks. This is followed by an educational motto, setting forth some principle or practice of education, on which a few remarks are also made.
8 30. A lesson on Scripture.
9 15 Practice in singing pieces from "Hymns and Poetry."
9 30. A lesson on objects, or the properties of matter.
10 30. Recreation.
10 45. Observing a lesson given to the children in one of the practicing schools by the superintendent of those schools.
11 30. A lesson on language.
12 30. Dismissal.

Afternoon.

2 0. A lesson previously given in the preparatory or practising schools, examined as to its object, and the method of giving it.
3 0. A lesson on number.
4 0. A lesson in singing and the notation of music, or in drawing, for the cultivation of taste and invention.
5 0. Walking exercise on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.
5 30. Dismissal on Tuesday and Thursday.

Evening.

6 30. Scripture instruction, or analyzing lessons in "Model Lessons."
7 30. Entering heads of lessons in note-books.
9 15. Dismissal.

Saturday.

8 15 A Scripture text and educational motto, as on the previous days.
8 30. Scripture instruction.
9 30. Gymnastics, under a drill-sergeant.
10 30. Scripture instruction.
11 30. Entering heads of lessons in note-books.

Note.—The afternoon of Saturday is a holiday for all the teachers in the Institution.

Second Class.—Twelve Weeks.

As the students now begin what may properly be called their *training*, more time is approp ated to the principles and practice of early education.

H. M. *Morning.*

8 15. A Scripture text and educational motto as to the lowest class.
8 30. A lesson to the upper section of the class in geography, or on the principles and practice of early education, and to the lower section on Scripture.
9 15. A lesson on number or drawing as an imitative art.
10 0. In charge of classes of children in the schools, or a continuation of the lesson on drawing.
10 45. A lesson on the principles and practice of early education.
11 30. Attending and remarking on gallery lessons given by students of the class.
12 30. Dismissal.

H. M. *Afternoon.*

2 0. In charge of classes of children in the schools.
2 30. Observing a lesson given to the children by the mistress of the infant school.
3 0. Drawing up sketches of lessons, or analyzing lessons in "Model Lessons," or other exercises of the same kind.
4 0. Notation of music, or practising drawing.
5 0. Walking exercise on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.

Evening.

6 30. A lesson on Scripture, or natural history.
7 30. Entering notes in daily journals.*
9 15. Dismissal.

Saturday.

8 15. A Scripture text and educational motto, as in the other days of the week.
8 30. A lesson to the upper section of the class on geography, and to the lower section on Scripture.
9 30. Gymnastics.
10 30. A lesson on Scripture.
11 30. Entering notes in daily journals.

Third Class.—Six Weeks.

The previous instruction and practice of the students is now brought to bear upon the government of large numbers of children, and the time is chiefly employed as assistants in the schools, or in taking the entire management of one of the small practicing schools. When they are not so employed, their time is occupied as follows, viz.:

H. M. *Morning.*

8 15. A Scripture text and educational motto.
8 30. A lesson on the principles and practice of early education, or on geography.
9 15. In the schools employed as general assistants.
12 30. Dismissal.

Afternoon.

2 0. In the schools as before.
5 0. Dismissal.

Evening.

6 30. A lesson on natural history or Scripture.
7 30. Entering notes in daily journals.
9 15. Dismissal.

Saturday.

8 15. A Scripture text and educational motto.
8 30. A lesson on geography.
9 30. Gymnastics.
10 30. A Scripture lesson.
11 30. Entering notes in daily journals.

Time allotted to each subject of study.

The following table exhibits the time weekly allotted in the different classes to each subject of study, and also the average weekly time.

—	First or Lowest Class.		Second Class.				Third Class.		Av'rage Weekly	
			First Period.		Second Period.					
	H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.
I. General Improvement:—Scripture	8	30	7	0	7	0	3	45	6	34
Writing and spelling, reports of lessons, &c.	10	30	12	30	12	30	10	30	11	30
Language	6	15	2	15	0	0	0	0	2	7
Number and form	5	0	0	0	2	15	0	0	1	40
Natural history	0	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	2	15
Geography, including the Holy Land	0	0	1	0	1	15	2	30	1	11
Objects	6	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	34
Vocal music	4	15	3	0	3	0	0	0	2	34
Drawing	3	0	5	0	5	0	0	0	3	15
Gymnastics and walking exercise	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
II. Lessons on the principles and practice of early education	11	15	12	30	12	45	3	0	9	45
III. Practice in the Schools:—Taking charge of classes, and afterwards of galleries of children	0	0	4	0	4	0	0	0	2	0
Giving an opinion on the lessons of other teachers, Giving lessons publicly	0	0	4	30	4	30	0	0	2	15
Attending as assistants in the schools	0	0	0	0	0	0	32	15	0	0
Having the sole charge of schools under inspection	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	15
Recapitulation:—General improvement	44	45	35	0	34	45	20	45	34	0
Principles and practice of education	11	15	12	30	12	45	3	0	9	45
School practice	0	0	8	30	8	30	32	15	12	15
Total number of hours weekly	56	0	56	0	56	0	56	0	56	0

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* Much time and attention are given to these journals, both by the students and those who instruct them, as well as by the ladies of the Committee, to whom they are sent for examination.

It is deemed unnecessary to give any syllabus of the courses of ordinary instruction, but the following syllabus of lessons on the principles and practice of early education, is annexed, as it shows what is in some degree peculiar to this institution.

First Course.

It is a distinctive feature at this course that the ideas are chiefly gained from examples presented to the students. The lessons are mainly explanatory of the examples.

I. Lesson on the daily routine of employment in the Institution. The instructions by the committee for students. General rules and regulations.

II. Examination and analysis of lessons from "Model Lessons," viz.:—

Lessons on objects, Part I. p. 51–93.
" color, Part I. p. 149–157.
" animals, Part I. p. 160–165.
" number, Part I. p. 103–140.
Scripture Lessons, Part III. p. 1–28.

III. Drawing out sketches of lessons on various subjects, after the example of those analyzed.

I.—*On Objects.*

1. On a shell or leaf, according to the model of a lesson on a feather.
2. Copper or iron . . . . " " lead.
3. Tea or sealing wax . . . . " " loaf sugar.
4. Vinegar or ink . . . . . " " milk
5. Recapitulation.
6. Parchment . . . . . " " paper.
7. Cloth . . . . . . " " leather.
8. Pipeclay . . . . . . " " chalk.
9. Wood or rice . . . . . " " coal.
10. Recapitulation.
11. A candle or hammer . . . " " lead.
12. A turnip or acorn . . . . " " a rose-leaf.
13. An egg . . . . . . " " honeycomb.
14. A bird or bee . . . . . " " a butterfly.
15. Recapitulation.

II.—*On Animals.*

1. Sheep . model—hare. 2. Goat . model—cow.

III.—*On Color.*

1. The color blue . model—red. 2. Color yellow . model—green.

IV. Lessons in which "Practical Remarks" form the text-book.

V. On the art of questioning children, and on the different methods of giving lessons.

The students afterwards draw out lessons in full, according to models given.

VI. On the best method of drawing out children's observation upon the objects around them, and upon the circumstances in which they are placed, and on fixing the knowledge so gained in the mind.

VII. The characteristics of young children that must be kept in view and acted upon, in order to secure their attention, to interest them in their lessons, and to gain ascendency over them.

1. Love of activity.
2. Love of imitation.
3. Curiosity, or love of knowledge.
4. Susceptibility to kindness and sympathy.
5. Deficiency in the power of attention.
6. The love of frequent change.
7. The force of early association.
8. Disposition to repeat the means by which they have once attained their ends.

VIII. On the senses, and the use to be made of them in early education.

IX. The gallery lessons given to the children of the preparatory or practicing schools, as to the subjects, the manner of treating them, and their bearing upon the education of the children.

First Preparatory School.—1. Form—1st step.
2. Color—1st and 2nd step.
3. Size—1st step.
4. Actions—1st step.
5. Human body—1st step.
6. Objects—1st step.
7. Number—1st step.
8. Religious instruction—1st step.
9. Sounds—1st step.

Second Preparatory School.—1. Form—2nd step.
2. Color—3rd and 4th step.
3. Size—2nd step.
4. Actions—2nd step.
5. Place—1st step.
6. Objects—2nd step.
7. Animals—2nd step.
8. Number—2nd and 3rd step.
9. Moral instruction—2nd step.
10. Religious instruction—2nd step.
11. Sounds—2nd step.

X. A general view of the different subjects of instruction in the preparatory schools, with a view to lead the students to draw from them principles and plans of teaching.

Second Course.

I. Instructions on familiar or conversational lessons, and on the subjects chosen for these lessons, in the preparatory schools.

II. Analysis of lessons in "Model Lessons."

1. Form, Part II. p. 150–226.
2. The human body, Part I. p. 24–50.
3. A flower, Part II. p. 65–76.
4. Scripture lessons, Part II. p. 1–21.
5. Bible examination, Part II. p. 125–132.

III. Drawing up sketches of lessons in writing, according to a given model, first, singly, and then in a series or course.

Objects.

1. On sugar, after the model of the lesson on bread.			
2. Spices and liquids	"	"	corns.
3. Leather and silk	"	"	cotton.

Animals.

1. On a tiger	Model—	A pheasant
2. The elephant and the cat .	"	A pig.
3. Different kinds of teeth .	"	Different kinds of feet of animals.
4. Comparison of parts of a quadruped and bird. . .	"	Hand and foot.

Scripture Illustrations.

1. The sun and the dew.	Model—	The rainbow.
2. Sheep—lion	"	The vine.
3. Fishermen of Galilee	"	The shepherds of Judæa.

Scripture Narratives.

1. On the Prodigal Son, and on 2. The Brazen Serpent . .	Model—Joseph's forgiveness of his brethren.

3. David's Veneration for his King " Solomon's respect for his mother.
4. The Nobleman's Son. " Mark x. 46 to 52.

In Series or Course.

1. A variety of sketches, after the model of the lesson on water.
2. A series of sketches on a given subject " on prayer, &c., as in "Model Lessons," Part III. p. 24, &c.
3. A graduated series of sketches on the same subject. " on a straw, a cat, &c.
4. On the subjects appointed for lessons weekly at the different galleries.

IV. Writing out lessons in full on specified subjects—As

1. To develop the ideas of Inodorous.
2. " " Pliable.
3. " " Tasteless.
4. " " Soluble and fusible.
5. " " Semitransparent.
6. " " Elastic.
7. " " Aromatic.
8. " " Natural and artificial.
9. " " Lesson on an elephant.
10. " " Comparison of the cow and pig.
11. " " A piece of poetry.
12. " " The rainbow.
13. " " The addition or subtraction of 8.
14. " " Explanation of the terms—sum, remainder, product, quotient.
15. " " Substance of lesson X. in Reiner's "Lessons on Form."
16. " " On the illustration of the general truth, "God is angry with the wicked every day."

Note.—The number of sketches and lessons which the students are enabled to draw out during their training of course depends upon their ability and upon the previous education they have received. Some of these lessons are examined publicly, that their excellencies or errors may be pointed out for the improvement of the class, the name of the writer being withheld.

V.—*Gallery Lessons.*—With reference to the Gallery Lessons, instructions are given on the following points:—

1. The sketch.
2. The subject-matter.
3. The summary.
4. The application of a moral subject.
5. On maintaining order and interest.
6. The exercise of the minds of the children, and the knowledge gained.
7. The manner of the teacher.
8. Voice—pronunciation.
9. Importance of attention to the whole gallery of children.
10. On the use to be made of incidental circumstances.
11. On the questions to the children.
12. Mechanical plans.

VI.—On the subjects taught in the schools, their suitability to the children, and the mode of treating them:—

1. Color.
2. Form.
3. Size.
4. Weight.
5. Physical actions and operations.

6. Number.
7. Place, as preparatory to geography.
8. Sounds, as preparatory to singing and the notation of music.
9. Objects, including models of common utensils.
10. Teaching by pictures of common objects, and drawing objects before children.
11. The human body.
12. Animals.
13. Moral instruction.
14. Religious instruction.
15. Teaching pieces of poetry.
16. Drawing and writing.
17. Reading and spelling.
18. Language, including composition, grammar, and the explanation of words.
19. Number, form and language, as the elements of intellectual instruction.
20. Summary of the principles learnt in considering the subjects of lessons for infants.
21. Drawing out sketches of the different methods of giving lessons, and the uses to be made of them, showing which are bad and which are good, and those suitable to different subjects.

VII.—Miscellaneous:—

1. A course of educational mottoes.
2. On intuitive knowledge and early development.
3. On principles and plans of education.
4. Anecdotes of occurrences in the school, brought forward with a view to form right principles of moral training and intellectual development.
5. On the play-ground, especially in reference to its influence in the intellectual and moral training of children.

Third Course.

I.—The practice of the school-room, and the principles on which it should be regulated:—

The school-room and its apparatus, including library, collection of objects &c.
The opening and general arrangements of a school.
Attendance, and the best method of raising and filling a school.
Admission payment, and first treatment of children.
General order and qnietness.
The physical state of the children, health, cleanliness, neatness.
The exercises of the school-room and play-ground.
The division of time, and the subjects of lessons in a school.
Modes of leading elder scholars to work, independently of the master's direct teaching.
The government of a school with respect to its spirit and plans.
The influence of numbers in teaching and moral training.
Rewards, punishments, emulation.
Assistance, including paid assistants and monitors; the monitorial system.
The defects and advantages of the individual, and simultaneous methods of instruction, and the use of the ellipses.
Examinations by the teacher, for parents and for subscribers.
Holidays.

II.—Points respecting teachers:—

The intellectual and moral qualifications of a teacher, and the circumstances which affect him in his labors.
The conduct of teachers to parents, committees, inspectors, and the public.
The means by which teachers may carry on their own improvement.

III.—On the mental and moral constitution of children with reference to the principles on which education should be based:—

Mental.

The various operations of the mind, intellectual and moral, and the wisdom and goodness of God which they display.

The dependence of one intellectual faculty upon another, and the necessity for the orderly and progressive development of the whole.

The intellectual diversities of children, and the method of treating each variety of character.

Moral.

The importance of moral training on a religious basis, showing how the Bible should be our guide.

Diversities in the moral character of children, and the method of treating each, viz.,

Attachments of children.
Anger, and the treatment of passionate children.
Quarrelsome children.
Children disposed to injure and destroy.
Cunning children.
Covetous children.
Fear, and its use and abuse, as a means of discipline with children.
Firmness, and its tendency to become obstinacy.
The love of distinction and applause.
The cultivation of benevolence.
The sense of right and wrong.
Respect.
Obedience.

IV.—General truths respecting the operations of the minds and moral feelings, and the uses to be made of them in the education of children.

The Graduated Course of Instruction pursued in the Model Schools.

I. RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.—*1st step: Moral Impressions.*—The children of this gallery are very young, direct religious instruction can scarcely be attempted at first, but their moral sense is to be cultivated, and moral habits formed. For instance, little acts of obedience are to be required from them—their conduct towards each other regulated, and little conversational lessons are to be given upon the kindness of their parents and teachers, with a view to develop the feeling of love, and to instruct them in their duties.

2nd step: First Ideas of God.—The object, as the children advance, is to produce the first impressions of their Heavenly Father—to lead them to feel somewhat of his power from its manifestation in those works of his with which they are familiar; and somewhat of his benevolence, by comparing it with the love shown them by their parents and friends.

3rd step: A Scripture Print.—The story to be gathered from the picture, by directing the attention of the children to it, and by questioning them. A portion of the Scripture should be given, that the children may connect the narrative with the Bible, and receive it as Divine instruction. The children should also be encouraged to make their remarks, by which the teacher may ascertain how far their ideas are correct. The object of the lesson should be to make a religious and moral impression.

4th step: Scripture Narratives.—The incidents or characters should be chose with a view to inculcate some important truth or influential precept. Elliptical teaching should be introduced to help the children to receive the story as a whole, and to sum up the lesson. In giving these lessons, the story itself should be either read from the Bible, or partly read and partly narrated, and pictures only used occasionally, to illustrate and throw interest into the subject. Teachers ought well to consider the different positions that pictures should occupy in the different stages of instruction.

5th step: Scripture Illustrations of Doctrines and Precepts.—Narratives, chosen with a view to inculcate some of the most simple and fundamental doctrines of Christianity. For instance, sin, its nature, introduction into the world, its consequences, and the remedy provided for it in the sacrifice of the Saviour. As the children advance, some lessons to be given to illustrate the natural history of the Bible.

NOTE.—In the first or early lessons on Scripture narratives, the truth or precept should be drawn from the story by the children. In the later lessons, the precept or religious truth or duty may be stated as the subject of the lesson, and the children required to discover what Scripture narratives illustrate the truth or precept they are considering.

6th step.—A course from the Bible, or a course on the Natural History of the Bible. On Monday, Scripture geography.

II. OBJECTS.—*1st step.*—Distinguishing or naming three or four common objects, and telling their uses; or distinguishing and naming the parts of common objects, and stating their uses.

2nd step.—*One Object* chosen that exhibits in a remarkable degree some particular quality, that the idea of that quality may be developed. *Another*, having distinct parts, which the children are to discover, and of which they are told the names.

3rd step: One Object.—The children to find out the qualities that can be discovered by the senses alone; also to distinguish and name the parts.

4th step: Miscellaneous Objects, Metals, Earths, Liquids, &c. One Object.—The children to extend their observations to qualities, beyond those which are immediately discoverable by the senses. *A little simple information* to be given at this stage on the natural history or manufacture of the object, after the children's observation has been called out.

5th step: Several objects.—The children to compare them, and point out their points of resemblance and difference.

III. TOYS.—Model toys of kitchen utensils, common carpenters' tools, &c., naming them, and telling or showing their uses.

IV. PICTURES.—*1st step.*—Groups of objects or single figures,—naming and talking about them.

2nd step.—Part of the lesson to be on the recollection of a picture used in a former lesson—part on a picture of common objects.

V. HUMAN BODY.—*1st step.*—Distinguishing the principal parts of the human body, the teacher naming them; or the children exercising any part of the body as directed. This lesson should be accompanied with considerable action, to animate the children.

2nd step.—Distinguishing the secondary parts of the body. This lesson to be extended to the parts of the principal parts of the human body, the teacher continuing to name them: a good deal of action still to be used.

3rd step.—Distinguishing the parts of the principal parts of the human body—the children naming them, and telling their uses.

VI. FORM.—*1st step.*—Distinguishing the patterns of shapes for the purpose of developing the idea of form—the children to distinguish them—no names being used.

2nd step.—The children continuing to select the patterns of shapes, according to the one shown; when perfect in this, they may select all those that have the same number and kind of edges, and the same number of corners.

3rd step.—The children to determine the number of sides and corners in planes, whether the sides are straight or curved; also to learn the names of the planes.

4th step.—A solid is shown, and the children select all those that resemble it in some points; the names of the solids are not to be given. The letters of the alphabet to be examined, and the number and direction of their lines to be determined.

5th step.—To determine the length of different measures, learn their names, and practice the introductory lessons on Form in "Model Lessons," part II.

6th step.—The course of lessons on Form in "Model Lessons," part II.

VII. ANIMALS.—*1st step: A Domestic Animal.*—A picture or a stuffed specimen may be shown. The children to be encouraged in talking about it, to say what they observe or know, without reference to any arrangement, the aim of the instruction being to elicit observation, to cultivate the power of expression, and especially to encourage humane and benevolent feelings towards the inferior creation. At this stage it is well sometimes to allow the children themselves to propose the animal that they are to talk about.

2nd step: A Domestic Animal.—Children to name its parts, color, size, and appearance. An attempt should be made in this stage, at a little arrangement of the subject, but it should not be too rigidly required. One principal object should be to encourage humane and benevolent feelings towards the lower animals.

3rd step: A Domestic Animal.—Children to describe the uses of domestic animals, their different actions, and with what limb they perform any action, the sounds they make, our duties with respect to them, &c. These alternate weekly with

4th step: Animals and Human Body.—The children to describe where the different parts of the human body are situated, and to compare those parts with the parts of animals, pointing out in what they are alike, in what they differ, and how fitted to the habits and wants of man, or of the different animals. See course in "Model Lessons," part I.

5th step: Wild Animals.—Children to tell their parts, color, size, and appearance; to point out how particularly distinguished, and to learn something of their habits and residence; being led to perceive how the animal is fitted by the Almighty for its habits and locality.

VIII. PLANTS.—*1st step.*—Naming the parts of plants, and telling their uses to man as food, &c.

2nd step.—See course in "Model Lessons," part II.

IX. NUMBER.—*1st step: First Idea of Number.*—The idea of the numbers from 1 to 5 or 6, to be developed by the use of the ball frame and miscellaneous objects, as exemplified in Reiner's introductory lesson, "Lessons on Number," reprinted, by permission of the author, for the use of the teachers of the institution, in "Papers on Arithemetic;" to which may be added many additional exercises, such as those in the 1st and 2nd sections of "Arithmetic for young Children," &c.

2nd step: First Idea of Number.—The idea of the numbers from 6 to 10 to be developed by the use of the ball frame, as before; also the first and second exercises in "Model Lessons," part i., to be used as directed in that work.

3rd step: Addition and Subtraction.—The remaining exercise under section I., also the whole of the exercises on subtraction in the same work.

4th step.—The more difficult exercises in "Model Lessons," part i., &c., accompanied by selected exercises from "Arithmetic for Children."

5th step: The Four Simple Rules.—Exercises on the four simple rules, in number from 10 to 100, from "Papers on Arithmetic," and "Lessons on Number;" also simple explanations of the rules, leading the children to think of the operation they have been performing; also, by numerous exercises, to lead them to perceive some of the general properties of number.

X. COLOR.—*1st step.*—Selecting colors according to a pattern shown, and arranging colors, no names being used.

2nd step.—Learning the names of the different colors, and selecting them when called for by name.

3rd step.—Distinguishing and naming colors and shades of colors, and producing examples from surrounding objects; with exercises on beads of different colors.

4th step.—Distinguishing and naming shades of color, and producing examples from memory.

5th step.—The lessons in this step to be given on a specific color; the children are also to learn from seeing them mixed, how the secondary colors are produced from the primary.

XI. DRAWING.—From the age of the juveniles, and also from drawing not coming under the head of "Gallery Lessons," the following course of exercises cannot be so well arranged into stages for the various schools. It is also thought desirable that one of the courses of lessons should be presented in a continuous form, that the extent and variety of exercise which they are intended to give to the mind may be observed. The courses form two series of exercises, commenced in the infant-school, and completed in the juvenile-school.

First Series—To Exercise the Eye alone.

Measuring relatively.—Let the children determine the relative length of lines drawn in the same direction on the slate, *i. e.*, which is longest, which is shortest, &c. Whenever there is a difference of opinion, prove who is correct, by measuring.

Determine the relative length of lines drawn in different directions on the slate.

Determine the relative distances between dots made on the slate.

Determine the relative difference of the distances between different parallel lines.

Determine the relative size of angles.

Determine the relative degree of inclination of lines from the perpendicular—first, by comparing them with a perpendicular line, drawn on another part of the slate—and afterwards without this assistance.

The same exercise with horizontal lines.

Determine the relative size of circles, and then of portions of circles.

Children called out to divide straight lines, drawn in different directions, into 2, 3, 4, &c., equal or given parts, the others to state their opinions as to the correctness with which the operation has been done.

The above exercise repeated with curved lines in different directions.

NOTE.—Several of the above exercises may be applied to the lengths, &c., of the objects and pictures in the room.

Measuring by current Standards.—The teacher to give the children the idea of an inch, nail, quarter of a yard, foot, half a yard, and yard, which, at first, should be drawn in a conspicuous place, for the whole class to see.

To decide the length of lines.—First practice the children upon the inch, then upon the nail, and so on up to the yard; continually referring to the standard measures.

NOTE.—These exercises should be continued until the eye can decide with tolerable accuracy.

Determining the length of lines combined in various rectilinear geometrical figures.

Determining the circumference or girth of various objects.

Determining distances of greater extent, such as the floor and walls of the room, the play-ground, &c., &c.

Measuring by any given Standard.—Measuring sizes, heights, lengths, &c., by any given standard.

How often a given standard will occupy any given space, with respect to superficies.

Second Series—To Exercise both the Eye and Hand.

Before commencing these exercises, it would be advisable to give the children instruction (in a class around the large slate) with regard to the manner of holding the pencil, the position of the hand in drawing lines in various directions. This will be found to diminish the labor of attending to each individual separately. Instruction as to the position of the body may be left till the children are placed at the desks.

NOTE.—The standard measures, used previously, should be painted on the walls, or placed conspicuously before the class in some manner, both horizontally and perpendicularly, in order to accustom the children to them.

The children to practice drawing straight lines in different directions, gradually increasing them in length. First perpendicular, second horizontal, third right oblique, fourth left oblique.

To draw lines of given lengths and directions.

To divide the lines they draw into given parts.

To draw curved lines in different directions, gradually increasing in size.

To try how many angles they can make with 2, 3, 4, &c., lines.

To try what they can make of 2, 3, 4, &c., curved lines. Then proceeding to copies; first copying those formed of straight lines, then those of curved lines.

To draw from copies.

NOTE.—In the course of forming figures out of straight and curved lines, the children should be taught to make the letters of the alphabet.

XII. GEOGRAPHY.—*1st step.*—The course consists of the following series of lessons: 1. The cardinal points. 2. The semi-cardinal points. 3. The necessity of having fixed points. 4. The relative position of objects. 5. The boundaries of the school-room. 6. The boundaries of the play-ground. 7. The relative distances of the parts and objects of the school-room. 8. The relative distances of the parts and furniture of the school-room marked on a map, drawn on the large slate or black board with chalk, before the children. 9. The scale of a map. 10. The relative positions and distances of different places on a map of the neighborhood. 11. The map of England. 12. The map of the Holy Land.

SPECIMEN OF EXAMINATION PAPERS

ON

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND THE ART OF TEACHING.

At the risk of repeating some of the leading principles set forth in the foregoing "*Course of Instruction*," we give below a *Syllabus of Lessons on Education* given in the same institution to students in training for teachers in the schools of the Home and Colonial Infant and Juvenile School Society.

Extracts from Syllabus of Lessons on Education, given to Students in Training at the Home and Colonial School Society.

I.—The Principles of Education as set forth by Pestalozzi.

1. *On the Aim proposed by Pestalozzi in Education.*—This the first point to be considered—Mistakes with respect to—The true aim of education as it respects knowledge—intellectual and moral character—Social relations—Moral and religious duties—Principles on which based—The proper work of the Teacher reduced—Results.

2. *The Influence of a good Education.*—The little that has been done by education as hitherto pursued—Causes of this—Influence of a good education on thought, feeling, sentiment, opinion, &c.—Different senses in which the child may be said to be father of the man—Influence of education established from examples—Necessity of faith in this principle on the part of the Teacher—Incidental and systematic education, difference between—The Teacher to form a good intellectual and moral atmosphere round the child—Means of effecting this.

3. *Education, Organic.*—Organs and organized bodies considered to illustrate this—Difference between growth from within carried on by organic action or development, and increase from without effected by accretion—Application—Difference between ordinary elementary education and elementary education on the system of Pestalozzi—Deductions as to liberty, activity, and power—The application, especially as to liberty, in the school-room and play-ground.

4. *On Education being an entire Work.*—Pestalozzi's motto, "Education has to work on the head, the hand, and the heart"—Dugald Stewart on the same point—Pestalozzi introduced the principle into popular education—The perfection to be aimed at in education, moral,—Mistakes that have been made as to Pestalozzi's practice—Pestalozzi's estimate of the relative importance of the different elements of a child's nature, and method of dealing with each.

5. *Education should aim at the Gradual and Progressive Development of the Faculties.*—Examples of graduated and progressive instruction as—Proceeding from realities to signs, first natural, then artificial—From particular facts to general truths—From what is simple to what is complex—From the exercise of observation to the exercise of conception—From the conception of material things to abstract ideas, &c.—The first step—to find something analogous in the experience of the child to the subject presented, thus proceeding from the known to the unknown—The child to be firm on one step before proceeding to the next—The extent to which graduation should be carried—Extremes to be avoided—The graduations not to be too minute to prevent healthy exercise.

6. *Education should be Harmonious.*—The cultivation of all the faculties, not singly and apart, but simultaneously.

7. *The Character or Spirit of Education.*—"Not to teach religion alone but all things, religiously"—Illustration drawn from the circulation of the blood in the body—Exemplification of this spirit in the instruction, general management, and discipline of the school—Results to be expected.

8. *Early Education chiefly by Intuition.*—What is meant by intuition—Examples—Value of what is learned from experience—Early education to lead to and prepare the mind for books—When commenced with books the mind often loaded with words conveying no definite meaning to children—The powers of the mind in consequence often cramped—Intuitive teaching one of the leading features of Pestalozzi's system—Connection between intuitive and logical knowledge—The assistance the former gives to the latter—Difference between the instruction of infants and juveniles, the one mainly intuitive, the other principally logical.

9. *Difference between Education and Instruction.*—An idea put forth strongly by Pestalozzi—Origin and application of the words—Points of difference—Instruction communicated (though the subject may be clearly explained) does not produce the same good effect, as instruction employed as a means of mental discipline—The proper bearing of this distinction on the lessons of the Teacher.

10. *Education of a Mixed Character.*—What this means—Principle on which based—Examples—Education should be practical as well as preceptive—Illustrated by the Teacher as well as enforced upon the child—Applied individually as well as collectively—Direct instruction to be followed by study—Public education united with private and domestic—Children to be carried rapidly over some subjects to develop power and energy,—slowly over others to give habits of minute investigation—Subjects of instruction enumerated.

11. *Systems of Education.*—Application of the word system—Views generally taken of systems of education—Characteristics of the chief popular systems, especially those of Stow and Pestalozzi—The one teaching chiefly through words "picturing out," as it is called, the other by things and words in their appropriate place—The specious boast of selecting what is good from every system—The motto, "That is the best system which brings the powers of the mind under the best discipline," a test—The system of Pestalozzi founded on principles and adapted to the human mind, consequently a philosophical system, might be called the natural system—Different value of *principles* and *plans*—Illustration of this shown in the different kinds of value appertaining to wheat and bread—Advantage of principles in every thing—Many Teachers appreciate plans only—Principles the only true and safe guide.

12. *Summary of the leading Principles of Pestalozzi.*

1. Education ought to be essentially religious and moral.
2. Education ought to be essentially organic and complete, and not mechanical, superficial, and partial, it should penetrate and regulate the entire being.
3. Education ought to be free and natural instead of being cramped, confined, servile—The child should have sufficient liberty to manifest decidedly his individual character.
4. Education ought to be harmonious in all its parts—It should be so carried on that all the natural faculties, and all the acquired knowledge agree and harmonize.
5. Education should be based on intuition, on a clear and distinct perception of the subject to be learned.
6. Education should be gradual and progressive, united in all parts, like a chain, forming a continued series without gaps.
7. Education should be of a mixed character, uniting the private and the public; it should cultivate at the same time the social and domestic spirit.
8. Education should be synthetical—every thing taught should be first reduced into its elements by the Teacher.
9. Education should be practical, drawing its means of development from the actual circumstances of life.

II.—The Art of Teaching.

1.—INTRODUCTORY COURSE.

1. *Instructions as to the Mode of giving Familiar or Conversational Lessons*, and on the subjects chosen for such lessons in the Practicing Schools of the Institution.

2. *The Examination and Analysis of Lessons* selected from "*Model Lessons*," a work published by the Society.

3. *Drawing out Sketches of Lessons on various Subjects*, taking those before analyzed as examples.

4. *Different Methods of giving Lessons Compared*, with a view to point out which are bad and which good, also the methods suitable to different subjects.

5. *On the Art of Questioning.*—The importance of understanding this art—One of the plans of teaching much used by Pestalozzi—Different objects in view in questioning—Questions which only exercise memory—Advantages of questioning—Rules to be observed and mistakes avoided—Examples of different kinds of questions—Of a train of questions—Practice in the art of questioning.

2.—ON GALLERY INSTRUCTION.

1. *Introduction.*—The nature and importance of gallery instruction—Children brought under the direct influence of the Teacher—Facility thus afforded for securing order, attention, progress, moral training—Value in economizing labor—The principle of success to be found in the power of the sympathy of numbers—Extent to which Teachers should avail themselves of this sympathy—Its abuses—Duties connected with gallery instruction.

2. *Preparation of Lessons.*—Directions for making a good sketch—Advantages of a

full sketch—Importance of determining beforehand the chief points of the lesson, and the method of working them out.

3. *The Subject matter.*—Importance of attention to quantity and quality—Rules by which to be guided, and the principles upon which based—Advantage of clear and natural arrangement—The ideas to be thoroughly worked into the minds of the children—sufficient but not too much new matter to be presented properly, it being almost "as important how children learn as what they learn."

4. *The Summary.*—Definition of a summary—The qualities of a good summary—Its uses—Various ways of making a summary—Advantage of its being well committed to memory or written out by the children.

5. *Application of Moral and Religious Lessons.*—The nature of this application explained—The importance of *applying* moral and religious instruction—Of requiring the children to make the application themselves—What is meant by impression—Causes of failure in making religious instruction impressive.

6. *Order, Interest, and Attention.*—The importance of order—Causes of disorder—Various means of obtaining and regaining order—Difference between order and stiffness or restraint—Importance of exciting interest—Means of doing it—Difference between healthful activity of mind and excitement—Attention how to be obtained and kept up.

7. *The Exercise to be given to the Minds of Children.*—Importance of producing activity of the mind—Amount of mental exercise to be given—Means of giving it—Teachers tell too much—Ways of doing so, and causes.

8. *The Manner of the Teacher.*—Importance of manner, especially with young children—Different kinds of manner—How each affects children—The power of a decided manner—Its abuse—The effects of the voice in exciting different feelings—Tones of voice suited to different subjects.

9. *Attention to the whole Gallery.*—Temptations to attend to a few children only—Effects—Means of keeping up general attention—Difficulties where a gallery is unhappily composed of children of different degrees of attainment—How in part to be obviated.

10. *The Use to be made of Incidental Circumstances, especially in Moral Training.*—Enumeration of those which most commonly occur in a gallery, and also in the playground—The influence that the notice of incidental circumstances has on the children, as well in an intellectual as in a moral point of view—Cautions against the abuse of this practice.

11. *On the Language given to Children.*—Relation of language to ideas—Right time of supplying language—Necessity for clearness and simplicity—Fine words and technical terms to be avoided.

3.—ON CLASS INSTRUCTION.

Use of class lessons—Mechanical arrangements—Apparatus—Amount of class instruction to be given—Subjects.

4.—ON THE SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION, ETC., PROPER FOR AN INFANT SCHOOL.

1. *On the Principles that should Regulate.*—The choice of subjects should be suitable to the children's age—Elementary character of the subjects—Necessity of having a general design in each course of lessons, as well as a particular design in each lesson—The importance of the instruction being of a graduated character—Of its commencing at the right starting point—Subjects should be varied—The reason and principles upon which this is founded.

2· *The subject stated.*—Color—Object in view in lessons on color, and their suitableness to this object and to infant minds—The graduated course of these lessons, with reference to the work published by the Society, entitled, "*Graduated course of Instruction for Infant Schools and Nurseries*"—Methods to be adopted in giving lessons—Principles to be deduced.

3. The other subjects treated in a similar manner—Form—Size—Weight—Place—Number—Physical actions and employments—Sounds, including practice in singing—Common objects—Pictures of common objects—Drawing before children—Human body—Animals—Plants—Language—Reading, Spelling, Writing—Pieces of poetry—Moral instruction—Religious instruction.

5.—ON THE SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION, ETC., PROPER FOR A JUVENILE SCHOOL.

1. *Points in which a Juvenile School differs from an Infant School.*—As to its organization—Division of time—Classification of children—Home-work—Employment of Pupil-Teachers—Subjects of instruction calling the reasoning powers more into exercise—Method of giving such subjects a more continuous and systematic character—Mode of treating the children—Morally, throwing them more upon their own responsibility—Intellectually, making them more independent of their Teachers, and more accustomed to gain information and knowledge from books, teaching them early "to learn how to learn," *i. e.*, to be self-educators.

III.—THE SCHOOL-ROOM, AS TO ITS ARRANGEMENT AND MANAGEMENT.

1. *The School-room.*—Influence of the appearance of the school-room on the children's character—Its effect on visitors—Desks and their arrangement—Cleaning—Ventilation—Temperature—Order and decoration—Apparatus—What it is—Its right appreciation—Care to be taken of it.

2. *The Opening of a New School, &c.*—Preliminary steps to be taken—Difficulties—Spirit in which to commence—Plans to be adopted—Admission of children—Register and other books—Payments.

3. *The Organization of a School.*—What it means—Importance of good organization—Plans to be adopted—Treatment of new scholars—Points requiring attention, as time-tables, programmes, distribution of work, &c.

4. *Division or Classification of the Children.*—Importance of classification of the children of an Infant School—Too much neglected hitherto—The advantage seen in the Model Schools of the Institution—Arrangement in galleries and classes—Principle upon which this is made, of proficiency, not age or size—The difficulties of Infant Schools, when Teachers have no assistance.

5. *Regular and punctual Attendance, and the means of insuring it.*—Importance of the subject—Different causes of irregular attendance—Method of dealing with each—Means for securing attendance, supplying a good education, having well defined and positive rules—Quarterly pre-payment—Punctual attendance—How much depending on the Teacher's own habits—Closing the door at a fixed hour—Visiting the parents, &c.

6. *The Dinner hour and arrangements for it.*—The Teacher's presence necessary—Its inconvenience considered—The social and moral effects of superintending children at dinner.

7. *The Physical State of the Children.*—Teacher's duties with respect to health, cleanliness, and neatness—Duties of parents not to be too much interferred with—Means of cultivating cleanliness, neatness, &c.—The effects.

8. *The Play-ground.*—Physical education—Its importance—Provision to be made for its connection with a school—Advantages of the play-ground in reference to moral instruction and moral training—Its bearing on the health and comfort of the Teacher—Their objections answered—Tact required in the superintendence of the play-ground—Apparatus, games, &c.—Time to be allotted to exercise—Objections of parents met.

9. *Monitors, Pupil-Teachers, and Paid-Assistants.*—Monitors, these "*necessary evils,*" as they have been called, fast disappearing—Still often found useful—Relative value of Monitors and Pupil-Teachers, and principle on which to be ascertained—The departments of labor for which each best fitted—Pestalozzi's method of preparing Monitors, and the work allotted them—Instruction of Pupil-Teachers, general and special—Their management—Special cases examined—Pupil-Teachers almost essential to a good school, and amply repay labors of first year or two—to be early trained to "self-education"—When so trained a great relief to the Teacher—Always to be had where practicable.

10. *Examinations,* for the satisfaction of the public—The parents—The Teacher—The design and special advantages of each—Manner of conducting them—Abuses—Addresses to parents a most desirable adjunct—Suitable topics for such addresses.

11. *Holidays,* their use and number—Never to be given at fairs, wakes, &c.—Not generally desired by children in a well-conducted school.

12. *Dealing with Parents.*—Position of the parent—Its relation to the Teacher—Conclusions—The double duty of a Teacher to the parent and the school—Course to be taken—Necessity of a conciliatory manner in dealing with parents who will not submit to rules—On punishing children at the request of parents.

13. *Visitors,* special and casual—Connection of the former with the school—Attention and courtesy due to them—How far the usual arrangement of a school may be changed for visitors—Their suggestions—Spirit in which to be taken—Use to be made of them.

14. *Inspectors.*—The peculiar character of their office—Inspection always to be obtained when practicable—Its value to a good Teacher—Their view of a school contrasted with that of the Teacher—Their relation as well to the Teacher as to the Patron—The Teacher's best friend—Inspection anticipated—Preparation to be made—Lessons to be given before Inspector, as at other times.

15. *Patrons and Committees.*—Relation to the school—Claims—The blessing of a good Patron—Difficulties with Patrons or Committees—The self-will and pride of a Teacher not to be mistaken for conscience, or the love of doing good—Principles and ends to be kept in view rather than plans—Not to thwart or oppose even when not con vinced—to give way in minor matters if vital points are untouched—Circumstances which appear to justify giving up a school.

IV.—THE GOVERNMENT OF A SCHOOL.

1. *The Nature and Object of this Government.*—All plans of government, if good, must be adapted to the uniform tendencies of human nature—Qualifications required in order to govern well—Importance of government in a school, as often giving to the

child first ideas of subordination—Essential also to the comfort of the Teacher—To the progress and happiness of the children—Disorder the master defect of many schools—Dislike to Teachers often caused by misgovernment.

2. *A knowledge of the Principles of Action in Childhood required in order to Govern well.*—The principles enumerated—Their importance—Scripture references on the influence of habits—Wisdom and beneficence of the Creator seen in the early formation and power of habits—Difficulty of ascertaining motives—Importance of knowing them—The use to be made of them in governing a school.

3. *Parental Government.*—Different kind of rule as to their spirit—The political—The military—The family—Characteristics of each—Reasonableness of requiring the parental spirit in Teachers—In what it consists—Effects of possessing the spirit—The parental spirit manifested by God—Seen in Christ—The parental spirit should govern our schools—Our debt to Pestalozzi for advocating it so powerfully—His fundamental principle in all moral development and training.

4. *Authority*—Meaning of the term—Abuses of authority—Modern mistakes—Importance of authority in the school-room—How to be used—Adaptation to the nature of the child—Mistakes as to governing by love alone—Rules to be adopted in establishing and maintaining authority.

5. *Kindness.*—Distinguished from other affections—Love essential to a Teacher—Shock often received by children when transferred from a mother to an unkind Teacher—Influence of Kindness—Principles on which based—Manner of carrying them out—Caution against extremes.

6. *Justice.*—Definition—Temptations to partiality—Children's appreciation of justice—Written rules often useful.

7. *Fear.*—Its abuses as a principle of government shown in the conduct of parents, teachers, and nurses—The use of fear in the moral economy of the child, and consequently its use by the Teacher—Cautions.

8. *Influence.*—What it is to govern with the will of a child—Means of obtaining influence—its true value both in the Infant and Juvenile School.

9. *Appeal to Principle.*—Nature of principle, or sense of right and wrong—Relative position among motives of action—Advantages—The result, self-government, &c.—Perfection of a school as to government, when good conduct proceeds from principle.

10. *Prevention.*—Importance of this principle as applied to the government of a school—Children to have full occupation—To associate pleasure with learning—Teacher to call in aid the public opinion of the school—To obtain the co-operation of parents.

11. *Rewards.*—What they are—How they act—Injurious as being an artificial excitement—As giving wrong views both of justice and merit—As rousing a mercenary spirit—As exciting vanity and pride—Means to be used to make promised rewards unnecessary—Example of Hofwyl—From our Infant Schools—The highest motives to be cultivated—Animal motives to be properly directed—Different ways of rewarding merit—Value of a reward consists not in the actual value of what is bestowed, but in the association created—Reward occasional and not expected—When it is not an incentive to exertion, but a proof that merit is recognized, it gives the idea of justice.

12. *Punishments.*—Nature, design, and spirit—Difference between punishment, correction, and discipline—The true end of punishment—Mistakes of the passionate Teacher—Effects of these on the child—Punishment should arise out of the fault—God's dealings with us our example—Natural punishments enumerated—Children to be shown the connection between sin and punishment—An unvarying punishment impossible—Should differ according to character and disposition, and the nature of faults, &c.—Evils of severe punishments—Importance of discrimination—Public exposure as a punishment—Spirit that leads a teacher to expose her pupils for her own gratification—Effects of exposure on different dispositions, and on spectators—Corporal punishment—Former and present practice contrasted—Opinion of Dr. Arnold and Dr. Bryce—Pestalozzi's rules for using it—Its absence in a good school—Expulsion when to be resorted to—Circumstances to attend it.

13. *Emulation.*—Nature of the principle—Usual application—Meaning of the word—Natural emulation, distinguished from Scripture emulation—"Generous rivalry," and "rivalry a means of self-knowledge," false ideas—Natural emulation not to be stimulated—Difficulties of a Teacher not using emulation—Substitutes for it, as—Desire to overcome difficulties—To gain knowledge—To please a much-loved Teacher, &c.

TRAINING ESTABLISHMENT

FOR MASTERS FOR THE NATIONAL SOCIETY.

THE following account of St. Mark's College is drawn from the Annual Reports of her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, from 1843 to 1846, and from publications of the Principal, Rev. Derwent Coleridge, addressed to the Secretary of the National Society:—

The principal Normal School, or training establishment for masters for schools under the charge of the National Society, is located in the parish of Chelsea, on the Fulham Road, about two and a half miles from Hyde Park Corner. It is called St. Mark's College, and the place is frequently designated as Stanley Grove.

Site and Buildings.—The site of the institution consists of eleven acres of land, perfectly healthy, and surrounded by a wall; of the eleven acres of land, about three acres and a half are occupied as gardens and potato-ground, three acres as meadow-land, two acres and a half as pleasure-ground and shrubberies, leaving about two acres for the farm and laundry buildings, the college, practicing school, and chapel. The whole of the grounds, whether laid out as meadow-land, garden-ground, or shrubberies, may be considered, and really are, practically useful for the industrial purposes of the college. Formerly the estate belonged to Mr. Hamilton, whose commodious mansion near the southern side of the property, affords, in addition to an excellent residence for the principal, a committee-room, a spacious and lofty lecture-room, having an area of 1,070 feet, the walls of which were fitted by the late owner with handsome bookcases, above which are casts from the Elgin marbles, a dining-hall (area 450½ feet), and offices.

Attached to this has been erected, in one of the Italian styles, a chapel, &c., a quadrangle, in which are situate the dormitories of the pupils, a separate bed-room (area 52¼ feet) being appropriated to each. The quadrangles are two stories, containing each 22 small sleeping-rooms, together with the towers at the two outer angles, each of which contains a sitting-room, a master's bed-room, and three smaller chambers for boys, thus providing accommodation for fifty students and two masters. Underneath are coal-chambers, workshops fitted up with carpenters' benches, a shoe and knife room, &c. The laundry is a separate building; one end of this has been fitted up as an infirmary, and in the center are store-rooms for potatoes and apples, and other products of the farm and garden.*

The practicing school is situate near the chapel, on the north side of the grounds. It is an octagonal building, affording accommodation for six classes, in addition to those that may be arranged on the gallery. In the center is the fireplace, and over this, on the sides of the brick-work forming the ventilating apparatus and the chimneys, have been fitted blackboards and conveniences for suspending maps and musical tablets, so as that they may be seen by the classes opposite. Independently of the central square area, each side of which measures 20 feet, the recesses provide accommodation for 260 children. A cottage on the premises, situated near the practicing school, has been fitted up during the present year for the accommodation of the two higher classes, in separate rooms, the area of each being about 259 feet.

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* Report, National Society, 1842, p. 75.

The teachers and masters of the training establishment consist of a principal, a vice-principal, a head master, a teacher of music, a teacher of drawing, and an industrial master or steward. The principal is the Rev. Derwent Coleridge, nephew of the eminent poet and metaphysician, Samuel T. Coleridge, who has impressed his own views on the general scope and details of the institution. Of him, Mr. Moseley, one of the Inspectors, speaks thus:—

"Those persons whose privilege it is to be acquainted with Mr. Coleridge, will appreciate his many and eminent qualifications as an instructor, and they will readily understand the ascendency which is given to him over the minds of the students, not less by that kindly and persuasive manner which is peculiar to him, and that colloquial eloquence which is his patrimony, than by the generosity of his purposes and the moral elevation of his principles of action. In the union of qualities such as these, with an abiding sense of the importance of the objects he has proposed to himself, absolute dedication to them, and entire faith in the means he has adopted for accomplishing them, he has succeeded in creating around him an institution which has probably outrun the hopes and expectations of its earlier friends, not less in the scale of its operations than in the character of the results which it contemplates,—an institution which claims, at an humble distance, to take its place among the collegiate establishments of the country—which has enlisted the sympathies of a large portion of the clergy in its favor, and contributed not a little to raise the standard affixed by public opinion to the office of an elementary schoolmaster."

The general scope and design of the institution, as gathered from Mr. Coleridge's own writings, may be thus summed up in the language of one of the inspectors:—

"Resting upon the ground that it is the duty, and by consequence the right and privilege of the Church to be the teacher of the nation, Mr. Coleridge's efforts have been mainly directed to form the character of his pupils in accordance with Church principles—to raise up a body of teachers, who might appreciate the Scriptural character of the English Church, and who should feel themselves to be living, intelligent, and responsible agents in the carrying out of her system. For such an end, they must prove (so far as such a result can be secured by any system of training within the reach of man) capable of communicating that entire preparation of heart and mind by which, with the help of God's Holy Spirit, the due reception and effectual working of the gospel message may be secured. Accounting it to be the peculiar aim of Protestantism, contemplated as an awakened energy of the Church, to enable each man for himself, according to his measure, to give a reason for the faith that is in him, and to ground that faith on Holy Scripture. Mr. Coleridge trusts that the teachers educated in this institution will be skilled to cultivate the best fruits of the English Reformation, as that which would substitute a religion of light for the darkness of superstition.

"The Church being regarded as the teacher of the nation, she can have no end in view short of, or wholly apart from, the training of the young in the principles of true religion. At her hands they are to be enabled, as far as human instruction might avail, to profit by the reading of Holy Scripture. No school knowledge can be recognized as useful which may not, directly or indirectly, contribute to this end. To bring up a child in the way in which he should go, and to furnish him with the weapons of his heavenly warfare—this is not a *part* of his education, rather it is the sum and substance of the whole; for whatever secular knowledge is really desirable as a part of early and general education, is either included in such a description, or may with facility be added to it—cannot fitly be taught apart from it. Language, with all its uses—history, in all its branches—science itself, considered in its noblest aspect, as an organ of reason and exercise of the mental faculties—these and every other study, not merely technical, attain their highest value when connected with religious truth, and degenerate into falsehood when pursued in any other connection.

"Mr. Coleridge feels strongly that no number of attainments, nor any facility in communicating them, can of themselves qualify a schoolmaster for his arduous office, and that before we inquire into the special fitness of a teacher, there is needed, as an essential prerequisite, a sound, and, to a considerable extent, a cultivated understanding—a certain moral power, the growth of religious principles, but developed by intellectual culture. And as the parochial schoolmaster has to supply all the indirect teaching to which the children of the better-provided classes owe much, and perhaps the best, of what they know, in those children of the poor likely to be intrusted to him, he will have to cultivate good habits in the ground of self-respect—habits of regular industry and self-control, of kindness and forbearance, of personal and domestic cleanliness, of decency and order; he will have to awaken in them the faculties of attention and memory, of reflection and judgment; he will have not merely to instill knowledge, or supply the materials of thought, but to elicit and exercise the powers of thinking,—to seek with the first dawning of reason to awaken a faculty by which truth may be indeed discerned—a faculty which he cannot give, but which he will assuredly find, and to which, by continually presenting its proper counterpart, he will ground knowledge upon faith, and give to religious truth an evidence approaching to intuition. Wherefore he especially needs to be not simply a seriously-minded Christian, but an educated man; and while to teach letters, in however humble a capacity, is not a mechanical employment, the occupation of the schoolmaster of the poor, when regarded from the proper point of view, is as truly liberal as any in the commonwealth."

The following passages are in the language of Mr. Coleridge:—

"The truth is, that the education given in our schools (I speak of those open to the poor for cheap or gratuitous instruction, but the remark might be expanded much more widely) is too often little more than nominal, imparting, it may be, a little knowledge—sometimes hardly this—but leaving the mental powers wholly undeveloped, and the heart even less affected than the mind. Of course there are exceptions and limitations to this statement. It does not apply to every school, and is less true of some districts than of others; but the fact, as a whole, stands upon what may be called statistical evidence. Is this owing to an accidental or to an inherent defect? Are the means employed inadequate merely, or essentially unfit? If the former, we may trust to time and gradual improvement. We may proceed, if possible, more carefully, but in the old way. If the latter, a different course must be pursued; we must do something else. I venture to take the latter position.

"To what end do we seek to educate the poor man's child? Is it not to give him just views of his moral and religious obligations—his true interests for time and for eternity; while, at the same time, we prepare him for the successful discharge of his civil duties—duties for which, however humble, there is surely some appropriate instruction? Is it not to cultivate good habits in a ground of self-respect?—habits of regular industry and self-control, of kindness and forbearance, of personal and domestic cleanliness, of decency and order? Is it not to awaken in him the faculties of attention and memory, of reflection and judgment?—not merely to instill knowledge, or supply the materials of thought, but to elicit and to exercise the powers of thinking? Is it not to train him in the use of language, the organ of reason, and the symbol of his humanity? And while we thus place the child in a condition to look onward and upward—while we teach him his relationship to the eternal and the heavenly, and encourage him to live by this faith, do we not also hope to place him on a vantage-ground with respect to his earthly calling?—to give to labor the interest of intelligence and the elevation of duty, and disarm those temptations by which the poor man's leisure is so fearfully beset, and to which mental vacuity offers no resistance?

"But is this an easy task? Can we hope that it will be duly performed for less than laborers' wages, without present estimation or hope of preferment, by the first rustic, broken-down tradesman, or artisan out of employment, whom necessity, or perhaps indolence, brings to the office? Not to put an aggravated case, however common, can any half-educated man from the working classes (and the majority of those who seek to be schoolmasters are all but uneducated) be safely intrusted with duties, the very nature of which it would be impossible to make him understand? Almost uninstructed, and utterly untrained—with little general fitness for his calling, and no special apprenticeship—he may teach a little, and this not well, but he cannot educate at all. But will not a little preparation suffice? May he not be taught a system? He may indeed be taught a system, but surely it will not suffice. He wants the first conditions of a teacher. He cannot teach what he does not know. He cannot explain what he does not understand. He may learn a particular method, but not how to apply it. The best preparation which he can receive, short of a complete course of training, is superficial and formal. He must himself be educated before he can educate others. Morally and religiously considered, the case is still worse. He cannot suggest motives, or inspire feelings, of which he is himself unconscious. If he be a pious man, it is indeed much; yet his principles, or at least his mode of explaining them, will be uncertain.

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"Here, then, I think we have the root of the evil. The object on which so much zeal and ingenuity have been bestowed, has been, not to procure proper masters, but to do without them. The attempt has been to educate by systems, not by men. School-rooms have been built, school-books provided, and methods of instruction devised. The monitorial, the simultaneous, the circulating, the interrogative, the suggestive systems, have each been advocated, separately or in combination. Meanwhile, the great need of all, without which all this apparatus is useless, and in comparison with which it is unimportant, has been all but overlooked. It has been taken for granted that the machinery of education would work itself, as if there had been a living spirit in the wheels. The guiding mind, by which even an imperfect mechanism might have been controlled to good effect, was to be superseded; nay, the conditions under which alone it can be provided—adequate support and just estimation—have been regarded as not merely unattainable, but as positively objectionable. The result is exactly what might have been anticipated. Each successive system, so long as it has been carried on under the eye of the author—that is, in effect, by an educated man, or by any really competent teachers—has been more or less successful; and in every case the merit of the workman has been transferred to his tools; and when, in other hands, these prove unserviceable, or even mischievous, they not merely lose a credit to which they were not entitled, but are charged with a fault which lies, perhaps, mainly in the handling. I say mischievous; for in education, as in other arts, the most effective implements may chance to require the most dexterous management. Let me not be thought to undervalue even the slightest helps by which the communication of knowledge may be facilitated. There is an art as well as a science of education; and every art has its methods, of which some may be better than others. But method itself supposes intelligence, adaptation, choice; when traveled blindly, it is a mere routine. And if this be true in the domain of matter—if no method can exempt the ship-builder or the engineer from the necessity of ever-varying contrivance—nay, if some faculty of this sort be required to enable the bird to construct its nest, or the bee its cells—how shall it be dispensed with, how shall we hope that its place can be supplied by forms, and practices, and rules, when that upon which we have to work is the mind of man? Even an educated teacher who trusts to mechanical arrangements, must expect a mechanical result. Phidias himself could not have produced the semblance of life, "the image of a man, according to the beauty of a man," had he employed any but the most simple tools. The mental statuary must, in like manner, leave upon his work the touches of his own hand: he must model with his own fingers. Every child is an individual, thinking and feeling for himself. He must be dealt with accordingly. The influence of the master must, as far as possible, be personal. Whatever intermediate agency is employed must be, for the same reason, intelligent; for mind can only be affected by mind, the inferior by the superior. To procure this without extra cost; to create a number of teachers who shall continue learners, exercising in the former capacity a certain freedom of action, without losing their own docility and dependence—in a word, to reconcile an intelligent agency with general regulation and unity of purpose, is a problem for which, perhaps, no general solution can be offered. In practice, every national schoolmaster must solve it for himself; and the success of his attempt will be the test of his efficiency.

"I have described the education of a poor man's child with a reference to the ends for which I suppose it to be given; and I have contended that this education cannot be given through the instrumentality of such men as are commonly employed for that purpose. The educator must himself have been both sufficiently and suitably educated. This will be denied by none, but every one will affix his own meaning to the words. I say further, to teach letters, in however humble a capacity, is not a mechanical employment: to educate, in the full sense of the word, is as liberal an occupation as any in the commonwealth. In plain terms, then, and in old-fashioned language, my conclusion is, that the schoolmaster must be an educated man. Thus stated, the proposition has a more startling sound; but the import is the same. I speak of the thing, not of the accidents with which it may be accompanied. I do not speak of birth, or social position, or habits of life, or manners, or appearance, but of a certain condition of the mental faculties, as well moral as intellectual; of that which constitutes education, contemplated as a result—not of the dress by which, in this country and in modern times, it is commonly distinguished. Of the social relations and outward bearing which education must necessarily assume, I may say a few words hereafter; at present I speak of the thing itself. With this explanation, I do not fear to affirm that the schoolmaster must be an educated man. And this necessity is not at all affected by the class of children which he has to train. The amount of acquirement may differ; but this is the least thing to be considered. I am utterly opposed—I had almost said hostile—to the notion that any number of attainments, or any facility in teaching them, can qualify a schoolmaster for his arduous office. Attainments may make a particular teacher—a professor, as such teachers affect to call themselves—but a mere teacher has much to learn before he can undertake to educate. A sound, and, to a considerable extent, a cultivated understanding—a certain moral power, the growth of religious principles, but developed by intellectual culture—surely this is an essential prerequisite in every educator, every schoolmaster, before we inquire into his special fitness for the class of children of which his school may be composed. And let it not be assumed that this is less requisite in the teacher of the poor than of the rich. The parochial schoolmaster, in which term I include the master of every church-school for the poor, is encompassed with difficulties to which an ordinary commercial or grammar school offers no parallel. Not merely has he a greater number of children to instruct, with less assistance and in a less time—children, for the most part, of tenderer years, and less prepared by previous instruction and home-training—but he has more to do for them. They are more dependent upon him for their education. His scholars have, in a manner, to be taught not merely to think, but to speak, if they would express any thing beyond animal passions and animal wants. He has to supply all the indirect teaching to which the children of the better-provided classes owe much, and perhaps the best, of what they know. And when to this we add the moral training which they require; when we take into account the actual position of the church in this country, and remember that on the parochial schoolmaster the children of the poor are too often dependent, not merely for catechetical instruction, but for the first implantation of religious sentiment—that he has too often to give that first presumption in favor of holy things, as they are set forth in the church of our fathers, of which there should be no rememberable beginning—that he has to interpret that sound of Sabbath-bells, which ought to have a meaning to the ears of earliest childhood, as often as it carries to the cottage its message of peace; when, lastly, we add to this the influence for good which the honored teacher may and ought to exercise over the youth long after he has quitted the school—an influence which he can only maintain by the ability to direct and assist him after he has ceased to be a child; in a word, when we see that the church schoolmaster has not merely to minister to the clergyman in some of his most arduous and important functions—the instruction of childhood and the guidance of youth—but to make up much that is wanting, and correct much that is perverse, in the circumstances and tendencies of humble life; shall it be said that I have overstrained the point, and contend for too high a standard? But if this be a just picture of what we want, then look at what we have, and be my earnestness forgiven!

"At all events, it is better to strive for too high, than to be content with too low a standard. Do I describe an impossible perfection? Let us at least set out with our faces toward it; we are then in the right direction, though we advance but a little way. Let us set out with faith, and the resolution that it engenders, and perhaps we may advance further than we think.

"I have described the qualifications of a schoolmaster implicitly by a reference to his work. How, it will be asked, are these to be commanded? Not, assuredly, by any cheap or summary method. Not, let me venture to urge, by courses of lectures, or lessons in pedagogic. Rather than so, let the clergyman take the first thoughtful man, no matter what his acquirements, of whose piety he is assured, and prepare him for his work, as he walks with him in the fields, or in the streets. I do not say that this is enough: far from it. I do not say that it is easy to meet with a man of good sense and right feeling, putting aside acquirement, to whom the oversight of children may be committed. I believe it will be found very difficult. But something in this way might be done—some fatherly discipline established—some lessons of humble wisdom imparted. From the other mode nothing, in the long run, but mischief can ensue. Wherever mere attainment is made a principal consideration, there will be a perpetual mistaking of means for ends, and of semblance for reality. A little superficial knowledge, and a showy, self-sufficient cleverness, will be the product, the spirit and flavor of which will quickly evaporate, leaving behind either a mere *caput mortuum*, or a fermenting mass of restlessness, petulance, and discontent. Yet let me not be misunderstood. My objection is not to lectures, or any other mode of facilitating acquirement; still less to the acquirement itself. The former may be most useful, the latter most desirable. What I resist is, the notion that either is sufficient—the one as a means, the other as a result. Normal education is not satisfied with a superstructure of faculties—it must lay a basis of character; and the latter is the longer and the more difficult process. Not what a teacher knows, but what he is, should ever be the first point considered."

Admission of Pupils.—Every applicant for admission must be at least fifteen years of age, and must submit the following testimonials: 1, a certificate of baptism; 2, a declaration from the parents or guardians of the youth, stating that he has attended the services of the Church of England, with their consent and approbation, for the space of at least one twelvemonth previous to the date of the application; 3, a medical certificate, according to a printed form; 4, a recommendation from a clergyman, who is requested to state, as particularly as possible, the grounds on which it is given, as well for the satisfaction of the National Society as to prevent disappointment and needless expense on the part of the youth and his friends. Good moral character, amiability, truthfulness, and diligence, are indispensable requisites. Further information is solicited as to the youth's temper and disposition, his abilities and attainments, his tastes and habits, his age, size, and physical strength, and as to any other matters from which his general fitness for the office of schoolmaster may be inferred. A certain degree of bodily as well as mental vigor is deemed indispensable. A strong, healthy, well-grown lad, of amiable disposition and promising talents, who shows an evident desire of knowledge, and has made a good use of the opportunities which he has already enjoyed, though these may not have been great, is considered to be the description of youth best fitted to fulfill the designs of the institution.

The examination of each student for admission is preceded by the other inquiries specified in the following paragraph, which are to be answered in his own words, and in his own handwriting, in the presence of the clergyman by whom he is recommended, or some other trustworthy person:—

"State your name and age the last birth-day; when and where you were baptized; whether you have been confirmed, and by whom; whether you have taken the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, and if so, whether you are a regular communicant? At what schools have you been educated, and for how long a time, and in what subjects have you been instructed? Are you sincerely desirous of becoming a schoolmaster, and do you seek admission into the National Society's Training College expressly to be fitted for that difficult and responsible office? Are you prepared to lead in the College a simple and laborious life; working with your hands as well as acquiring book-knowledge, and rendering an exact obedience to the disicipline of the place? Are you aware that your path of duty on leaving the College will be principally, if not entirely, among the poor? And are you willing to apprentice yourself to the Society on that understanding?"

Mode of Admission.—These certificates having been received and approved.

the youth is directed to present himself for examination at the college. He is expected to read English prose with propriety, to spell correctly from dictation, to write a good hand, to be well acquainted with the outlines of Scripture history, and to show considerable readiness in working the fundamental rules of arithmetic. Any further knowledge which he may possess, of whatever kind, is in his favor, not only, or so much, for its own sake, as on account of the studious turn of mind and aptness for receiving instruction which it may appear to indicate. A talent for vocal music and drawing is particularly desirable.

In the event of his passing this examination with credit, he is received into the college, and remains there on probation for the first three months; after which, if his conduct shall have been satisfactory and he shall be found to possess the necessary qualifications, he is apprenticed to the National Society. From this period till the age of 21, the society is responsible for his education, clothing, and maintenance, being at liberty to make use of his services as a schoolmaster at any time and in any way that may be thought proper. In general, the period during which the apprentices are expected to remain under instruction at the college is three years, after which time they are to be placed in situations either as the masters of small schools, or more commonly as assistants in large ones.

The Principal, in his Report, complains that many of the students admitted are deficient in the requisite preparation for the course of instruction pursued in this institution.

> "Of those now on probation, or recently apprenticed, a fair proportion are intelligent lads, of suitable temper and disposition; but even of these, comparatively few are properly prepared for the institution. Against this difficulty it is impossible to provide by mere exclusion, without reducing the numbers admitted to an extent incompatible with the welfare, or indeed the existence, of the institution. Not many of those recommended possess even that modicum of acquirement which might fairly be expected from a promising boy of twelve, not to say fifteen, years old. They cannot 'read well, that is, with intelligence, nor write correctly from dictation.' I do not allude to slight and casual inaccuracies, but to a general deficiency, the result of bad teaching. They are, for the most part, quite ignorant of grammar; and, what is worst of all, they are not sufficiently acquainted with the vocabulary of their own language to profit even by oral teaching of a kind suitable to the college, much less to gain information for themselves from books. Of geography, not to say history, they are, for the most part, wholly ignorant, many having never seen a map. This description applies to different individuals in different degrees, and there are some to whom it does not apply at all; but in a majority of cases it is necessary to ground the probationers afresh in the simplest rudiments of learning—to go over again the work of an elementary school—with what loss to the pupils and disadvantage to the college, need not be told."

Studies and Training of the Pupils.—The subjects of instruction include Scriptural knowledge, and Bible literature, the doctrines of the Church and Church History, Latin, Music, English Grammar, General History, English Literature, Geography, Algebra, Geometry, Mechanics, Arithmetic, Drawing, and the art of Teaching under the designation of Normal lessons.

The pupils leave their beds at half past 5 in the morning, and are again in bed at 10 at night, when the dormitory lights are extinguished by one of the elder youths; two of whom, under the inspection and control of the industrial teacher, are intrusted with the duty of lighting, regulating, and extinguishing the gas-lights throughout the establishment. This gives seven hours and a half for sleep. The remaining 16 hours and a half are thus divided:—they are allowed to remain,—

One hour in their bed-rooms, half an hour in the morning, and the same time in the evening. This, however, includes the time spent in coming and going, &c. Habits of personal cleanliness, neatness, and order, are carefully enforced. It is with this view, as well as for the purpose of private devotion, that a separate bed-room has been allotted to each youth.

Four hours and a half are assigned to industrial occupations, of which half an hour is consumed in coming and going, getting out and putting by their tools, washing their hands, &c.

The studies of the college commence at a quarter before 7, with the reading of a collect from the Prayer-Book. The period of time allotted to study and united devotion amounts to about 8 hours.

Half an hour is allowed for each of the three meals, including the laying and removing of the cloth, &c. They breakfast at 8, dine at 1, and drink tea at 7. Before tea they sing for an hour.

Two hours and a quarter are reserved for voluntary study and recreation, viz. the half hour before and after dinner, the half hour after tea, which is spent in family devotion, and an hour before bed-time, when the repetitions are learnt which are to be said next morning.

The number of hours devoted weekly to each occupation is stated in the table subjoined. It will be observed that the greatest periods of time are given to Music and Latin, and the least to Arithmetic:—

Number of Hours devoted Weekly to each Occupation of the Students.

OCCUPATION.	Division I.	Division II.		Division III.	
		1st Section.	2d Section.	1st Section.	2d Section.
Chapel	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0
Evening Worship	3 30	3 30	3 30	3 30	3 30
Scriptural Knowledge and Christian Doctrine (i. e. Articles)	2 5	3 0	3 25	1 50	3 40
Church History and Bible Literature	2 20	2 0	2 0	2 40	2 40
Latin	6 15	6 0	6 0	5 0	6 0
English Grammar, English Literature, and History	7 10	2 45	5 20	6 0	3 50
Geography	2 30	2 30	1 20	4 0	5 20
Writing	0 30	1 20	1 20	2 40	4 0
Arithmetic	0 20	0 35	1 10	0 40	3 20
Geometry	2 50	1 20	2 25	..	..
Algebra and Trigonometry	2 20	5 40	2 40	2 40	..
Mechanics and Natural Philosophy	2 0	0 35	..	..	..
Music	7 10	7 10	7 10	7 10	7 10
Drawing	4 0	4 0	4 0	4 0	4 0
Normal Lessons	3 0	..	..	..	..
Private Reading	1 30	..	..	..	..
Preparing Lessons	..	9 0	9 0	9 0	9 0
Meals	8 45	8 45	8 45	8 45	8 45
Leisure	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0

In addition to the seven hours devoted to musical instruction in each week, six hours more are allotted to the practice of the Chapel service. On this point, Mr. Coleridge observes:—

> "If, however, the choral service, as performed in the chapel of St. Mark's College, be in itself unobjectionable; if, in truth, it have been adopted from a sense of its superior beauty and fitness under the circumstances of the case—it may be mentioned, as a further recommendation, that it furnishes the best, if not the only means, compatible with other exigencies, of imparting to the students of this institution that skill in the art of singing which is now so generally desired, if not expected, in a parochial schoolmaster. No system of teaching vocal music, however excellent, can dispense with the necessity of long and continuous practice; time for which could not have been afforded in this college, if it had not been found possible to unite the acquirement of this art with its best and principal use. As it is, the seed-time and harvest of instruction are to a certain extent combined, the grain being sown and the sheaves gathered by the same process and at the same time. In plain terms, the musical skill required for the

performance of the choral service is supplied, in some considerable measure, by the service itself; and, indeed, as these youths have not been selected, generally speaking, with any reference to musical capacity, and are not destined for the exclusive or gainful exercise of the musical profession, it would, I believe, have been found difficult to exact from them that close and unremitting attention to this study which it indispensably requires, and which they now bestow upon it, were it not for the pressure of a motive at once so sacred and so stimulating, coupled with the guidance and encouragement of a teacher who, to a practical acquaintance with Church-music, such as could be looked for only in a master of the art, adds the authority derived from his position as vice-principal of the college."

"It is not, indeed, intimated that any opportunity for the *practice* of singing, however favorable, can dispense with the necessity of regular elementary instruction in the principles of music. It is a great advantage to acquire a foreign language in the country where it is spoken; but it will be proper, nevertheless, to acquire it *grammatically*. Now the services of the chapel render music, as it were, a living language in this college, which the youths catch up insensibly by hearing and imitation—a language, moreover, heard only in its purest and noblest form, by which the taste of the student is cultivated, together with his powers of execution. And when it is remembered how much the success of a singer depends upon mechanical proficiency, apart from the interesting science which gives to the study its intellectual character, it will not be thought that too much stress is laid upon that training of the ear and voice which the students go through, independently of any course of lessons. On the other hand, it is felt that, without the intellectual character above alluded to, the study, or, to speak more properly, the *pursuit*, of vocal music would not merely be imperfect, but of doubtful benefit, taken as a branch of general education. And if it should be said, that all the theoretical knowledge necessary to a vocalist will come in the end by an analytical as opposed to the usual elementary methods (a result which can only be expected in the most favorable cases), it would yet be necessary that those who learn in order that they may teach, should be made acquainted with some *system of instruction*, capable of easy and general application. In adopting that which owes so much to the peculiar genius of Mr. Hullah, regard has been had both to the intrinsic excellence of the method itself, and to the ready machinery with which it is supplied.

"It thus appears that there are two kinds of musical instruction always going on together, and mutually assisting each other. The art of reading music, with the requisite knowledge of musical notation, is conveyed through the medium of Mr. Hullah's 'Grammar of Vocal Music,' under the very able superintendence of Mr. May; one division of the students being under his own tuition, while a junior class is carried through the earlier portion of the course by one of the pupils. A third section, more advanced than either of the preceding, has the further advantage of lectures on harmony and counterpoint from Mr. Hullah himself. These three divisions correspond generally to the three years of residence—an arrangement by which every branch of study in the college is more or less regulated. An exact correspondence is obviously impracticable—some youths bringing with them a larger amount of musical knowledge and proficiency than others can be expected to attain at any period of their lives. Much, it is true, has been done to produce a respectable mediocrity; but excellence will depend, after all, on individual qualifications."

The reasons for embracing the study of Latin in the scheme of instruction are thus set forth:—

As it is considered a leading object of national education, as viewed in connection with the church to raise the speech, and by implication the understanding of the people to the level of the liturgy, the uses of language, that priceless talent of reading the thoughts of others and of communicating our own in writing, has been kept prominently in view as one of those first principles by which the studies of the college should be regulated; and in conformity with these notions Latin is taught (so far as may be necessary to lay the foundations of a sound acquaintance with the accidence, syntax, and etymology of that language), as an essential part of the course. This knowledge has been considered, if not necessary for the teacher of English, to be, at least, in the highest degree useful. The majority of the pupils are not carried beyond the accidence of the Eton Latin Grammar and Arnold's third Latin exercise book; a few who, previously to their admission, had acquired the rudiments, have been carried further, and some five or six who have attained a knowledge of Greek, apart from the teaching of the institution, are encouraged by the principal in its cultivation, so far as may conduce to the understanding of the original text of the New Testament, on the express provision, however, that these and the like studies do not in the slightest degree interfere with the more immediate objects of the institution, or with the due performance of its humblest duties.

Industrial Occupations.—The industrial occupations of the students consist in the labors of the farm, the garden, the house, lithography, and bookbinding.

"The advantages, I had almost said the necessity, of balancing the intellectual pursuits of the students by manual labor, scarcely need to be further insisted on. It is, in the first place, the only way in which such an institution could be supported, except at an enormous expense; but this is the least consideration. It is almost the only mode in which the hours not occupied in study could be profitably and innocently passed by a promiscuous assemblage of youths, almost all of whom have so much both to learn and to unlearn. Above all, that which is learned in this way is itself a most valuable acquirement, more especially to the schoolmaster of the poor. Not merely will it enable him to increase his own comforts without cost, but it will make him practically acquainted with the occupations of those whom he has to instruct, and thus procure him an additional title to their confidence when he comes to act among them, not merely as their teacher, but as their adviser and friend."

"Hitherto the difficulty has been to perform the necessary work of the establishment in a satisfactory manner without encroaching on the hours of study—nothing being so much to be avoided as a hasty, imperfect, or slovenly performance. The method pursued is as follows:—The several duties—whether of the house, the farm, or the garden—are assigned to different parties, varying in number according to the need, which are changed at stated periods, generally weekly. Over each of these parties a monitor is appointed, care being taken so to sort the parties that the influence of the older and steadier youths may be continually exerted over their younger or less experienced associates. One youth, the eldest of those first admitted, is over the whole. It is his duty to arrange the labors of the day, under the superintendence of the industrial master, and to inspect the different working-parties when needful. He is also expected to hear complaints, and to settle any trifling difference which may have arisen. The monitor of each party is expected to maintain order among those whose labors he directs; and, to speak generally, the discipline of the place is, as far as possible, carried on by the moral influence of the youths over each other, a most watchful supervision being maintained by the masters. The direct interference of the principal is not resorted to except in cases of necessity. Faults are corrected by admonition, and, if need be, by rebuke, either private or public, as the case may seem to require. It is sometimes advisable to make the admonition general, without naming those for whom it is specially intended. A journal of conduct is also kept, which will, it is hoped, have a beneficial effect; and every youth is occasionally reminded that his prospects when he shall have left the institution, depend upon his conduct while in it. No prominence, however, is given to this or to any other secondary motive. Good conduct can only be produced, in the long run, by a sense of duty, or by the habit which it produces when it becomes a matter of course; and this habitual sense of duty is best encouraged by a mode of treatment from which every appeal to motive, strictly so called, is excluded. I believe this to be not merely the highest, but the most practical view of the question; and although in such a matter the utmost that can without presumption be expected, is a partial, and, under the Divine blessing, a growing success, yet it may with some degree of confidence be affirmed, that it has been already borne out by facts. The particular methods by which cheerful obedience, regularity, diligence, and general good conduct are to be preserved in a training establishment, more especially in the industrial department, cannot be detailed within the limits of this report. They vary with the exigency, and are suggested in each case by the judgment, experience, good-feeling, and educational tact of those by whom the establishment is conducted. It will be understood that the whole rests upon a religious basis, and is referred constantly, and expressly, yet not obtrusively, to a religious standard; care being taken to prevent phrases and professions from anticipating the growth of real feelings.

"The business of the house is partly performed by the students, and partly by female servants. The former clean all the shoes, and knives, &c., lay the cloth, &c., and wait at meals, sweep and dust the school-rooms, keep the courts clean, light and attend to all the fires except those in the kitchen department, regulate the gas-lights, keep up a constant supply of water throughout the college by means of a forcing-pump, and attend to the drainage, which is also effected by means of a pump. It has not been thought advisable that they should make their beds or wash the floors. It is not likely that they will ever be called upon to perform these offices when they leave the college, while the loss of time, and the injury done to their clothes, more than counterbalance any pecuniary saving which could in this way be effected.

"The labors of the farm are principally confined to the care of domestic animals—cows and pigs, and poultry of various kinds. The cows are milked by the youths, and an accurate account kept of the produce of the farm and dairy, which is consumed almost entirely in the establishment. The utility of this part of the establishment is too evident to require a comment.

"The gardens, lawns, and shrubberies furnish abundant employment for those not otherwise engaged; and though a considerable portion of time and attention is necessarily allotted to ornamental horticulture, yet this will be found by no means the least useful or the least appropriate feature of the scheme. There is perhaps no form in which habits of manual industry can be encouraged more easily or more beneficially, either with a view to the immediate or to the ulterior effect, than by the occupations of the garden. Not to mention their effect upon the health and happiness of the youths, or the lessons which they teach of patience, order, and neatness, they are decidedly favorable to the growth of intelligence, and this of the best kind—more particularly when connected with the study of botany, which may with peculiar propriety be called the poor man's science. When studied on physiological principles, its close connection with the best and holiest truths give it a yet higher claim to our attention.

"Looking forward to the future position of our students, almost every country schoolmaster might be, with much advantage, both to himself and to his neighborhood, a gardener and a florist. The encouragement lately afforded to cottage gardening has been already attended with the most pleasing results. The parochial schoolmaster who shall be able to assist by example and precept in fostering a taste so favorable to the domestic happiness, and, in fact, to the domestic virtues of a rustic population—a taste by which an air of comfort is communicated to the rudest dwelling, and a certain grace thrown over the simplest forms of humble life—will, it is trusted, in this as in so many other ways, be made an instrument of good, and an efficient assistant to the parochial clergyman."

In connection with the moral purposes of the industrial occupations of the students, the office of the industrial master is considered of the highest importance.

"It is his duty to maintain order and enforce discipline—not, however, by mere drill, however skillfully organized or efficiently conducted, but by the influence of his example and the force of his character; to live among them, and to lead them on, as well by precept as by occasionally sharing in their occupations, to simple, industrious, and strictly regular habits; to settle disputes and allay jealousies; to correct personal conceit and every the least approach to a love of show and finery; to recommend (and this not by words only) an humble and dutiful industriousness, setting forth the religious obligation and beneficial tendency, not merely of labor in general, but of bodily labor in particular, as a blessing growing out of, and, in the case of those by whom it is rightly used, superseding, if I may so speak, the penal character of toil, through Him by whom, after an ineffable manner, it has been rendered holy, honorable, and of good report in the Church;—all this with a reference to the special aim of the institution, as an instrument for elevating and ameliorating the lot of the laboring poor."

Schools of Practice.—Opportunities for practice in teaching and conducting school are afforded in a Practicing or Model School, on the premises, and the Chelsea Parochial School. The Model School is composed of 142 children, of whom a certain number are admitted upon the free list, and the rest pay a fee of 4*d.* per week, or 3*s.*, per quarter. The latter are principally children of respectable mechanics, market-gardeners, and working-people. Mr. Coleridge thus characterizes them:—

> "There are among them many very promising lads, in whom a toward nature, and perhaps some home-training, must share whatever praise may be thought due to their actual character and attainments. It is from these and such as these, wherever they may be found, that I would select our future teachers. Many of them come from a considerable distance—as much as two or even three miles—bringing their dinners with them, which they eat in the school-room, under the eye of a teacher; the same attention being paid to the propriety of their behavior as if they were boarders. Their little hymn of praise is sung by themselves at the beginning and conclusion of their simple meal, the materials of which in most cases indicate but a scanty competence at home; while the sum paid for their schooling, as well as the punctuality of their attendance, are each of them—the latter, perhaps, not less than the former—a proof that considerable efforts, and even sacrifices, will be made by respectable persons of this class to procure what they consider good instruction for their children."

It having been considered expedient to extend yet further the facilities for practice in the art of teaching supplied to the students, and to make them familiar with it in its application to schools more nearly of the same class with those the charge of which will ultimately devolve upon them, an arrangement has been made by which a certain number of them are employed daily in the Chelsea Parochial School. To facilitate the details of this arrangement, one of the students, whose term of training has expired, has been appointed to the office of master of that school, with permission to reside in the college, from whence the students accompany him daily to the school. Mr. Coleridge thus speaks of the connection of this school with the institution:—

> "If the practicing school should be thought not to prepare the young men for the difficulties of their vocation—the children being of a better sort, or taught under greater advantages, than they can expect to find hereafter—no such objection lies against the parochial school. Nothing can be more humble—I might almost say, abject—than the domestic condition, generally speaking, of the poor children, who are here provided, not merely with instruction, but with the motive to seek it—with the clothes without which many would not, and others could not, come to school at all. Some, indeed, of the children pay a penny a week; but the greater number are taught gratuitously, and of these as many are comfortably clothed as the funds at the command of the committee will permit. The benevolence of the directors, and in particular of the rector of the parish, is specially directed toward the children of the very poor—attracted by the misery, undeterred by the vice and self-abandonment with which the lowest estate of poverty is too often attended. Hence they have been unwilling to raise the character of the school by any means inconsistent with this charitable object, and would rather do a little good to those who want it so much, than seem to do more to those who want it less. But, as intimated above, the very difficulties by which the school is embarrassed—whether from the character of the children or any other cause—enhance the value of the experience which may be gained in it by the teachers; and although some time must elapse before the

effects of the present management upon the welfare of the school can appear, yet it is hoped that an improvement has already taken place beneath the surface. This connection—with the results of which, so far as they have gone, I am authorized to state that the rector of the parish is fully satisfied—will relieve the funds of the school to a certain extent, without burdening those of the National Society."

Mr. Moseley, the Inspector, submits the following remarks at the close of his Report, on the condition of this Institution in 1846:—

"No purpose of such an institution is obviously of equal importance with that which proposes to itself the formation of the religious character of the students, in the true and comprehensive sense of that term; and it is with heartfelt pleasure that I bear testimony to the impression left upon my mind by my visits to St. Mark's College, of the success with which religious influences have, under the blessing of God, been made to operate there.

"If the moral aspect of the institution be that in which it is most grateful to contemplate it; if in the cheerful conformity of the students to the rules of its discipline, in their submissive deportment toward their superiors, and their steady pursuit of an arduous path of duty, there be evidence of a dedicated and a chastened spirit; if their intercourse with the children whose education is intrusted to their charge, be characterized not less by that kindly tone and that humanized demeanor, than by that more just recognition of their social position and truer self-respect, which are usually associated with a gentler birth than theirs, and a more careful nurture; all these advantages, so inestimable in themselves, and in their relation to the purposes of the institution, are the legitimate fruits of the formation of a religious character, and are evidences of its existence. To the formation of such a character, the prominence given in the system of the institution to the services of the college chapel, cannot but contribute in an eminent degree; and in assigning to them the first place among those characteristic features of the system which I am desirous to bring under your lordships' notice, I am not only following the order in which they came under my own observation, but assigning to them their due place and their relative importance. The chapel is, in Mr. Coleridge's system, 'the key-stone to the arch.'"

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Passing to the subject of secular instruction, I am desirous to record my entire adhesion, in a general sense, to the views entertained by Mr. Coleridge on the relative importance of literature and science, as proper elements of a course of secular instruction in its adaptation to the purposes of this institution. These views are set forth in the following paragraphs of his last letter:—

"What these lads want is power of thought and language. Their verbal memory is dormant; they are incapable of the simplest abstraction. Till this be remedied, they can neither classify nor analyze; they cannot vary the form without changing the matter; they cannot illustrate—they cannot explain; in a word, they cannot teach. They have learned a certain number of facts—or rather, perhaps, a form of words in which facts are recounted—and might easily be taught a great many more in the same way; but they cannot combine or employ them, or so much as recognize them in an altered dress." * *

"Science, however valuable in itself as a discipline of the mind, and however useful in its application to the mechanic arts, is of no avail for the purposes above mentioned. It will not enable an ignorant boy to express himself with common propriety; it will not furnish him with the machinery of thought, or prepare him for the acquisition of knowledge in general. It will indeed strengthen his faculties, and raise him intellectually in the scale of being, but it will not serve as a foundation. Again, from whatever cause, it is not found to have the same effect as studies of another description in softening and refining the character; and though this may be easily carried to excess, yet to humanize the coarse, rude natures, common in a greater or less degree to all uneducated boys, and in this way to gentle their condition, is among the most important ends of the institution."

Whatever difference of opinion there may be as to some of those considerations by which Mr. Coleridge has thus sought to define the respective provinces of science and literature, there can, in my opinion, be none as to the general result at which he has arrived. I believe that he has assigned to each its due importance, and that each actually holds, in the system of the institution, its legitimate place, and receives its due share of attention.

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There is, however, a second stage in the education of a schoolmaster. He must not only have acquired the knowledge which he has to communicate, but be acquainted with the best methods of communicating it, and thoroughly practiced in the use of those methods. All the elements of education hitherto spoken of, are common to him and to every other educated man, and are not peculiar to a training college: the functions of such a college are not discharged until a professional education is superadded.

It is in the experience of every teacher, that to embrace a truth one's self, and to be able to present it under the simplest form to the mind of another, are essentially different things: the one is a condition *necessary*, but not *sufficient* to the realization of the other.

I am not urging the claims of any of the particular schemes, or methods of instruction, which may at any time have been propounded, although I believe that the students in such an institution should be conversant with all of them; I am simply insisting on the necessity of making teaching, as *an art*, the subject of study in a training college, in respect to *each subject* taught; of viewing each such subject under a double aspect, as that which is to become an element of the student's own knowledge, and as that which he is to be made capable of presenting under so simple a form, that it may become an element of the knowledge of a child. If it be said that such knowledge will be given by that practice of the art of teaching which will form the occupation of the student's future life, I ask whether it is not in the experience of every person conversant with education, that a master may be possessed of all the knowledge he is called upon to teach; and far more than it—he may, in the ordinary sense of the word, and even in its highest sense, be an educated man; and to these qualifications he may add the experience of a whole life spent in tuition, and yet never have become a skillful teacher.

Appealing to my own experience as an inspector, I can bear testimony to the fact that among the schools of which my opinion is recorded the least favorably, are some, whose demerits are not to be attributed to any want of education or of general intelligence in their masters, or of a character formed upon Christian principles, but simply to *ignorance of the art of teaching.*

If I were asked (supposing the requisite knowledge of the subject taught) what constituted a good teacher? I should say, an habitual study of the best methods, and of the art of teaching. And if it were inquired of me why so few good teachers were to be found? I should say, because so few *study* it—or look upon it, indeed, at all in the light of a proper subject of study.

It is true that, as in all other branches of practical knowledge, some possess greater natural advantages for the acquisition of the art of teaching than others, and, by the prompting of these, being led to the study of it, become self-taught in it. And, in like manner, if any other branch of knowledge, now the subject of ordinary instruction, had never been analyzed and simplified for that purpose, or taught systematically—and if all men were, under these circumstances, left to their own resources in the acquisition of it, and to their own choice whether they would acquire it or not—yet some, incited and encouraged to the pursuit of it by the bent of what is called genius, would find out for themselves the path which leads to it, overleap the intervening difficulties, and attain it.

I believe it to be thus with the art of teaching. Some few, by dint of natural qualifications, acquire that skill which a systematic course of instruction would make in a great degree common to all; and thus the false opinion has grown up that no man can become a good schoolmaster who is not endowed naturally with peculiar qualifications for the office.

It is to be borne in mind that the work of the elementary schoolmaster is one of no ordinary difficulty. A crowd of poor children is brought to him, in whom the moral sense is in abeyance—who have never been taught to think—who have little or no knowledge which may form the subject of thought, and are without the means of acquiring that knowledge. He must teach them to read, to write, to cipher, and impart to them the elements of religious knowledge: but this is not all: he will fail of the really valuable results of education if he do not further teach them to think and to understand—store their minds with legitimate subjects of thought, and cultivate the habit of self-instruction.

For the accomplishment of these objects, the time allowed to him is short, the means limited, and often inadequate.

If he have beforehand weighed the difficulties and discouragements of his work, carefully and systematically studied the best methods of encountering them, considered the various circumstances of the application of those methods, and the modifications thereby rendered proper to them, and practiced himself in the use of them; and if, actuated by the highest motives—in reliance on the Divine blessing—strong in the requisite preparation, but without extravagant hopes of the result—he then give his heart to the work, and pursue it hopefully, cheerfully, and perseveringly—it will prosper in his hands.

Without such a preparation, his first impulse will be to sit down and weep; his second, in despair of any useful result, to shrink into the mere mechanical discharge of his school duties.

The elementary schoolmaster must be a man of *action*: his functions are *aggressive*, and call for the exercise of decision of character, a prompt judgment, a ready skill, and a facile intelligence. A passive, impressible, abstracted, and exclusively literary character, however pleasing as the subject of speculation, in connection with the office of a village schoolmaster, is foreign to the business of a great school.

I can imagine no concurrence of circumstances better calculated to form an efficient schoolmaster, than a previous course of professional instruction, subdued in every phase and form of its development to that one object; assigning not to a single teacher the realization of that object, but concentrating the labors of all —each in his own department—upon it. To youths who had enjoyed the advantages of a course of instruction like this, the duties of a schoolmaster's life, and its responsibilities, would have become, in some sort, a second nature. That ambition which receives so early its impulse, would, in minds thus preoccupied, obtain its legitimate direction, and the labor of their office would become less irksome to them when looked upon in the light of an exercise of *skill* not less than a duty.

The following remarks on the results of the methods pursued in this Institution, and, incidentally, in other Institutions of the same kind, are taken from the Report of Mr. Moseley, in 1847:—

If, with reference to its professional bearings, there be any defect in the prescribed course, it does not appear to lie in this, that it aims at too high a standard of attainment in every subject to which the attention of the students is directed.

It is not to be supposed that, to become good teachers, they can know too much of the subjects they have to teach. Of the elementary lessons it has been my duty to listen to and to pass a judgment upon, here and elsewhere, the prevailing and characteristic defect has been, not too much knowledge, but too little. Had the teacher known more of the subject of his lesson, it has been my constant observation, that he would have been able to select from it things better adapted for the instruction of children. Had his mind been more highly cultivated, and the resources of his intellect brought by education more fully under his control, he would have been able to place them under simpler forms, and in a better manner to adapt the examination founded upon them to the individual capacities of the children he had to teach. *Accordingly, the simplest lessons I have listened to in training schools, have commonly been those delivered by the ablest and best-instructed students.*

It is not the fact, that the teacher knows too much, which makes him unintelligible to the child, but, that he knows nothing which the child can comprehend, or that he has never studied what he has to teach in the light in which a child can be made to comprehend it.

That fullness of knowledge on the part of the teacher, of which my experience has led me to appreciate the importance, is a fullness of the knowledge of things adapted to the instruction of children, *studied* under the forms in which they are most readily intelligible to them; of things learned in the light in which they are also to be taught. It includes, notwithstanding, the knowledge of many things which a child can never be expected to know. That the teacher may be able to present the subject under its most elementary form to the mind of the child, he must himself have gone to the root of it. That he may exhaust it of *all* that it is capable of yielding for the child's instruction, he must have compassed the whole of it.

In his preparation for the discharge of functions such as these, even with respect to that limited number of subjects which enter into the business of elementary instruction, there is ample room, and verge enough, for a long course of study, which, whilst on the one hand it is strictly professional in its bearings, yields to no other, as a means of accomplishing the highest objects of a general education.

It is not, however, to be denied, that in that function of a training school which is directed to the simple acquisition of knowledge separated from, or exercised out of the view of, that other which contemplates the imparting of it, there is a tendency to defeat the object for which such institutions have been established.

Every man must be conscious of a separation made by education, between his own mind and that of a less educated man; a separation which enlarges with each step of his intellectual progress, and which is widened to its utmost conceivable limits, when the relation is that of a poor ignorant child to a teacher otherwise highly instructed, but who knows nothing likely to interest the child, or has been accustomed to study nothing in the light in which it may be made intelligible to the child. Their intercourse, under these circumstances, cannot but be mutually distasteful, and the school must be to both equally a place of bondage; the child neither benefiting by it as a learner, nor the master as a teacher.

Every thing which I have observed leads to the conclusion, that the course of the training school, to be successful, must not be limited to the one function of giving the student the learning he may require; the other, that which concerns the art of teaching, being left to self-instruction and to practice.

One of those results of the recent examination of the Battersea Training School, which appeared to me the most important, was the progress the schoolmasters who came up for examination had obviously made, *as teachers*, since they left the Institution, placing them in this respect greatly in advance of the resident students. I have not observed the same result in institutions where the importance of the study of the art of teaching is not to the same extent felt, and where the relation of the elementary school to the training college is not so constantly kept in view.

It struck me as remarkable, in the lessons delivered by the candidates for certificates in the model-school at St. Mark's, that there was no attempt made to transfer the knowledge to be communicated directly from the mind of the teacher to the minds of the children.

Their idea of an oral lesson seemed to be comprised in an *examination*. Nor was it a *questioning* of knowledge from their own minds to those of the children, by that process which is called the interrogative method, but, simply, a *vivâ voce* examination into what the children actually knew, limited for the most part to the subject-matter of some lesson which they had previously read; and as it did not thus enter apparently into the teacher's idea of an oral lesson that the children should know any thing more when it was completed than when it began, so did this seem to be the result.

In the printed form of report on the qualifications of candidates for certificates, one of the questions we are instructed to answer has reference to the character of the "Exposition" of the candidate in teaching, whether it be fluent or not. The answer recorded to this question in almost every case which came under our observation at St. Mark's is, "No exposition." With reference to the same question at Battersea, we have recorded that, in the lessons we listened to there, there was too much exposition, and too little examination. At Chester the two seemed to be more judiciously united in the proportions of a good lesson. There was this feature, moreover, worthy of observation in the lessons delivered in the Chester School, that the teacher broke up his lesson into parts, teaching by the way of exposition, only so long at one time as not to weary the attention of the children, and overburden their memories, then examining upon that portion, afterward taking up the subject where he had left it off, and thus continuing the process until the lesson was completed, when he examined upon the whole of it.

Oral teaching requires, more than any other, constant *self*-teaching on the part of the master. It is a method which will be adopted by no master who is not of a dedicated spirit and fond of his work. Besides, however, that satisfaction which he will derive from it in the *success* of his school, he will not fail to experience this other, that whatever, for this object, he teaches himself, will be fixed more firmly in his mind, and that his knowledge of it will receive a character of clearness and precision not, perhaps, otherwise to be gained.

In the teaching of the students of all the Training Institutions I have observed, and it was perhaps to be expected, a perpetual tendency to travel out of the sphere of the intelligence of the children, and out of the limits of that kind of knowledge which is likely to interest or to benefit them; but nowhere does there appear to be less effort made to subdue this tendency, and systematically to subject the lesson, both as to the matter and the manner of it, to the exigencies of the child, than at St. Mark's College. Nothing would tend so effectually to correct this evil as the addition to the staff of the Institution of a model elementary teacher, on whose efforts those of the students might, with advantage, be formed, and to which they might be encouraged to refer them as a standard.

NORMAL SCHOOL

FOR THE TRAINING OF PAROCHIAL SCHOOLMASTERS,

AT BATTERSEA, ENGLAND.

THE Battersea Training Establishment is the most interesting institution in England for the professional education of teachers. It was founded in 1839, by James Phillips Kay* (now Sir James Kay Shuttleworth), Secretary of the Committee of Council on Education, and E. C. Tufnel, Esq., Assistant Poor-Law Commissioner, with two distinguishing objects:—

> 1. To give an example of normal education for schoolmasters, comprising the formation of character, the development of the intelligence, appropriate technical instruction, and the acquisition of method and practical skill in conducting an elementary school.
>
> 2. To illustrate the truth that, without violating the rights of conscience, masters trained in a spirit of Christian charity, and instructed in the discipline and doctrines of the Church, might be employed in the mixed schools necessarily connected with public establishments, and in which children of persons of all shades of religious opinion are assembled.

It was founded as a private enterprise, and at an expense of $12,000 to the individuals named, in the hope that it might be employed, if the experiment should prove successful, by the Government, in supplying teachers for schools of industry for pauper children, like those at Norwood, Manchester, Liverpool, and elsewhere; for reformatory institutions for juvenile criminals; for "ragged schools" for neglected and vagrant children in large cities; and for schools of royal foundation at dock-yards and in men-of-war. The original constitution impressed upon the normal school was conceived in this view. But, in 1843, the institution, having proved successful, and it being no longer convenient for its founders personally to superintend its operations, was transferred to the management of the National Society, for the purpose of being also instrumental in spreading a truly Christian civilization through the masses of the people in manufacturing districts. In announcing this fact, the founders, in their Report in 1843, remark:—

> Our personal experience had made us early acquainted with the absence of a growth in the spiritual and intellectual life of the masses, corresponding with the vast material prosperity of the manufacturing districts.
>
> We had witnessed the failure of efforts to found a scheme of combined education on the emancipation of infants from the slavery into which the necessities and ignorance of their parents, and the intensity of commercial competition, had sold them.
>
> To arrest the progress of degeneracy toward materialism and sensuality, appeared to us to be the task most worthy of citizens in a nation threatened by corruption from the consequences of ignorance and excessive labor among her lower orders.
>
> It is impossible that the legislature should, year after year, receive and publish such accounts of the condition of the people as are contained in the Reports

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* Mr. Kay in 1843 assumed the name of Shuttleworth, in consequence of receiving a legacy from a person of that name; and in 1849 was knighted by the queen, for his services to the cause of elementary instruction.

of the Hand-loom Weavers' Commission, or of the Commission on the Employment of Women and Children, or that on the Dwellings of the Poor and on the Sanitary Condition of Large Towns, without resolving to confer on the poor some great reward of patience, by offering national security for their future welfare.

These considerations have a general relation, but the state of the manufacturing poor is that which awakens the greatest apprehension. The labor which they undergo is excessive, and they sacrifice their wives and infants to the claims of their poverty, and to the demands of the intense competition of trade. Almost every thing around them tends to materialize and inflame them.

They are assembled in masses,—they are exposed to the physical evils arising from the neglect of sanitary precautions, and to the moral contamination of towns,—they are accustomed to combine in trades-unions and political associations,—they are more accessible by agitators, and more readily excited by them.

The time for inquiry into their condition is past, the period for the interference of a sagacious national forethought is at hand. We therefore felt that the imminent risks attending this condition of the manufacturing poor established the largest claim on an institution founded to educate Christian teachers for the people.

No material change has been made in the plan of the school in consequence of this transfer of management, or enlargement of the design; and the history of its establishment and original constitution will therefore be both appropriate and profitable to an understanding of its present operations. The following account is drawn from the "*First and Second Reports on the Training School at Battersea, to the Poor-Law Commissioners*," published in a volume entitled "Reports on the Training of Pauper Children. 1841."

The training of pauper children in a workhouse or district school cannot be successful unless the teacher be moved by Christian charity to the work of rearing in religion and industry the outcast and orphan children of our rural and city population. The difficulty of redeeming by education the mischief wrought in generations of a vicious parentage, can be estimated only by those who know how degenerate these children are.

The pauper children assembled at Norwood, from the garrets, cellars, and wretched rooms of alleys and courts in the dense parts of London, are often sent thither in a low stage of destitution, covered only with rags and vermin; often the victims of chronic disease; almost universally stunted in their growth; and sometimes emaciated with want. The low-browed and inexpressive physiognomy or malign aspect of the boys is a true index to the mental darkness, the stubborn tempers, the hopeless spirits, and the vicious habits on which the master has to work. He needs no small support from Christian faith and charity for the successful prosecution of such a labor; and no quality can compensate for the want of that spirit of self-sacrifice and tender concern for the well-being of these children, without which their instruction would be any thing but a labor of love. A baker, or a shoemaker, or a shop apprentice, or commercial clerk, cannot be expected to be imbued with this spirit, during a residence of six months in the neighborhood of a model-school, if he has not imbibed it previously at its source.

The men who undertake this work should not set about it in the spirit of hirelings, taking the speediest means to procure a maintenance with the least amount of trouble. A commercial country will always offer irresistible temptations to desert such a profession, to those to whom the annual stipend is the chief if not sole motive to exertion. The outcast must remain neglected, if there be no principle which, even in the midst of a commercial people, will enable men to devote themselves to this vocation from higher motives than the mere love of money.

Experience of the motives by which the class of schoolmasters now plying their trade in this country are commonly actuated, is a graver source of want of confidence in their ability to engage in this labor, than the absence of skill in their profession. A great number of them undertake these duties either because they are incapacitated by age or infirmity for any other, or because they have failed in all other attempts to procure a livelihood, or because, in the absence of well-qualified competitors, the least amount of exertion and talent enables the most indolent schoolmasters to present average claims on public confidence and support. Rare indeed are the examples in which skill and principle are combined in the agents employed in this most important sphere of national self-government. Other men will not enable you to restore the children of vagabonds and criminals to society, purged of the taint of their parents' vices, and prepared to perform their duties as useful citizens in an humble sphere.

The peculiarities of the character and condition of the pauper children demand the use of appropriate means for their improvement. The general principles on which the education of children of all classes should be conducted are doubtless fundamentally the same; but for each class specific modifications are requisite, not only in the methods, but in the matter of instruction.

The discipline, management, and methods of instruction in elementary schools for the poor, differ widely from those which ought to characterize schools for the middle or upper classes of society. The instruction of the blind, of the deaf and dumb, of criminals, of paupers, and of children in towns and in rural districts, renders necessary the use of a variety of distinct methods in order to attain the desired end.

The peculiarity of the pauper child's condition is, that his parents, either from misfortune, or indolence, or vice, have sunk into destitution. In many instances children descend from generations of paupers. They have been born in the worst purlieus of a great city, or in the most wretched hovels on the parish waste. They have suffered privation of every kind. Perhaps they have wandered about the country in beggary, or have been taught the arts of petty thieving in the towns. They have lived with brutal and cruel men and women, and have suffered from their caprice and mismanagement. They have seen much of vice and wretchedness, and have known neither comfort, kindness, nor virtue.

If they are sent very young to the work-house, their entire training in religious knowledge, and in all the habits of life, devolves on the schoolmaster. If they come under his care at a later period, his task is difficult in proportion to the vicious propensities he has to encounter.

The children to whose improvement Pestalozzi devoted his life were of a similar class,—equally ignorant, and perhaps equally demoralized, in consequence of the internal discords attendant on the revolutionary wars which, at the period when his labors commenced, had left Switzerland in ruin.

The class of children which De Fellenberg placed under the charge of Vehrli at Hofwyl were in like manner picked up on the roads of the canton—they were the outcasts of Berne.

These circumstances are among the motives which led us to a careful examination of the schools of industry and normal schools of the cantons of Switzerland. These schools are more or less under the influence of the lessons which Pestalozzi and De Fellenberg have taught that country. They differ in some important particulars from those which exist in England, and the experience of Switzerland in this peculiar department of elementary instruction appears pre-eminently worthy of attention.

These orphan and normal schools of Switzerland, which have paid the deference due to the lessons of Pestalozzi and De Fellenberg, are remarkable for the gentleness and simplicity of the intercourse between the scholar and his master. The formation of character is always kept in mind as the great aim of education. The intelligence is enlightened, in order that it may inform the conscience, and that the conscience, looking forth through this intelligence, may behold a wider sphere of duty, and have at its command a greater capacity for action. The capacity for action is determined by the cultivation of habits appropriate to the duties of the station which the child must occupy.

Among the laboring class, no habit is more essential to virtuous conduct than that of steady and persevering labor. Manual skill connects the intelligence with the brute force with which we are endued. The instruction in elementary schools should be so conducted as not only to assist the laborer in acquiring mechanical dexterity, but in bringing his intelligence to aid the labors of his hands, whether by a knowledge of the principles of form or numbers, or of the properties of natural objects, and the nature of the phenomena by which his labors are likely to be affected. In a commercial country, it is pre-eminently important to give him such an acquaintance with geography as may stimulate enterprise at home, or may tend to swell the stream of colonization which is daily extending the dominion of British commerce and civilization. Labor which brings the sweat upon the brows requires relaxation, and the child should therefore learn to repose from toil among innocent enjoyments, and to avoid those vicious indulgences which waste the laborer's strength, rob his house of comfort, and must sooner or later be the source of sorrow. There is a dignity in the lot of man in every sphere, if it be not cast away. The honor and the joy of successful toil should fill the laborer's songs in his hour of repose. From religion man learns that all the artificial distinctions of society are as nothing before that God who searcheth the heart. Religion, therefore, raises the laborer to the highest dignity of human existence, the knowledge of the will and the enjoyment of the favor of God. Instructed by religion, the laborer knows how in daily toil he fulfills the duties and satisfies the moral and natural necessities of his existence, while the outward garb of mortality is gradually wearing off, and the spirit preparing for emancipation.

An education guided by the principles described in this brief sketch, appears to us appropriate to the preparation of the outcast and orphan children for the great work of a Christian's life. * * *

That which seemed most important was the preparation of a class of teachers, who would cheerfully devote themselves, and, with anxious and tender solicitude, to rear these children, abandoned by all natural sympathies, as a wise and affectionate parent would prepare them for the duties of life.

To so grave a task as an attempt to devise the means of training these teachers, it was necessary to bring a patient and humble spirit, in order that the results of experience in this department might be examined, and that none that were useful might be hastily thrown aside. Our examination of the Continental schools was undertaken with this view. A visit was made to Holland at two successive periods, on the last of which we took one of Dr. Kay's most experienced schoolmasters with us, in order that he might improve himself by an examination of the methods of instruction in the Dutch schools, all the most remarkable of which were minutely inspected. A visit has been paid to Prussia and Saxony, in which several of the chief schools have been examined with a similar design. Two visits were paid to Paris, in which the normal school at Versailles, the Maison Mère, and Novitiate of the Brothers of the Order of the Christian Doctrine, and a great number of the elementary schools of Paris and the vicinity, were examined. The normal school at Dijon was especially recommended to our attention by M. Cousin and M. Villemain, and we spent a day in that school. Our attention was directed with peculiar interest to the schools of Switzerland, in the examination of which we spent several weeks uninterruptedly. During this period we daily inspected one or more schools, and conversed with the authorities of the several cantons, with the directors of the normal schools, and with individuals distinguished by their knowledge of the science of elementary instruction. The occasional leave of absence from our home duties which you have kindly granted us in the last three years respectively, was mainly solicited with the view, and devoted to the purpose, of examining the method of instruction adopted in the schools for the poorer classes on the Continent.

This report is not intended to convey to you the results of our inquiries. It may suffice to describe the chief places visited, and the objects to which our attention was directed, in order that you may know the sources whence we have derived the information by which our subsequent labors have been guided. We entered Switzerland by the Jura, descending at Geneva, and, having obtained the sanction of the authorities, were accompanied by some members of the council in our visit to the schools of the town and neighborhood. Thence we proceeded to the Canton de Vaud, inspecting certain rural schools, and the schools of the towns on the borders of the lake, on our way to Lausanne. Here we spent two days, in company with M. Gauthey, the director of the normal school of the canton, whose valuable report has been translated by Sir John Boileau, our fellow-traveler in this part of our journey.

At Lausanne we attended the lectures, and examined the classes in the normal school and the town schools, and enjoyed much useful and instructive conversation with M. Gauthey, who appeared eminently well qualified for his important labors.

At Fribourg we spent some time in the convent of the Capuchin friars, where we found the venerable Père Girard officiating at a religious festival, but he belongs to the Dominican order. The Père Girard has a European reputation among those who have labored to raise the elementary instruction of the poorer classes, consequent on his pious labors among the poor of Fribourg; and the success of his schools appeared to us chiefly attributable,—first, to the skill and assiduity with which the monitors had been instructed in the evening by the father and his assistants, by which they had been raised to the level of the pupil teachers of Holland; and secondly, to the skillful manner in which Père Girard and his assistants had infused a moral lesson into every incident of the instruction, and had bent the whole force of their minds to the formation of the characters of the children. It was, at the period of our visit, the intention of Père Girard to publish a series of works of elementary instruction at Paris, for which we have since waited in vain.

At Berne, we spent much time in conversation with M. De Fellenberg, at Hofwyl. We visited his great establishment for education there, as well as the normal school at Munchen Buchsee, in which visit we were accompanied by M. De Fellenberg. What we learned from the conversation of this patriotic and high-minded man we cannot find space here to say. His words are better read in the establishments which he has founded, and which he superintends, and in the influence which his example and his precepts have had on the rest of Switzerland, and on other parts of Europe. The town schools of Berne and other parts of the canton merited, and received our attention.

At Lucerne we carefully examined the normal and orphan schools. Thence we proceeded through Schweitz, with the intention of visiting the colony of the Linth, in Glarus, but failed, from the state of the mountain roads. Crossing the Lake of Zurich at Rapperschwyl, we successively visited St. Gall and Appenzell, examining some of the most interesting orphan schools in the mountains, particularly one kept by a pupil of De Fellenberg at Teuffen, the normal school at Gais (Kruisi, the director of which is a pupil of Pestalozzi), and the orphan school of M. Zeltveger at Appenzell.

Descending from the mountains, we crossed the lake to Constance, where we found Vehrli, who had many years conducted the poor-school of De Fellenberg at Hofwyl, now in charge of the normal school of the canton of Thurgovia, in a large mansion once connected with the convent of Kruitzlingen. Here we spent two days in constant communication with Vehrli and his pupils, in the examination of his classes, and deriving from him much information respecting his labors. From Constance we traveled to Zurich, where we carefully examined the normal and model schools, both at that time considerably shaken by the recent revolution.

At Lenzberg we had much useful conversation with the director of the normal school of the canton of Aargovia; thence we traveled to Basle, where we visited the orphan house of the town, and also that at Beuggen, as well as other schools of repute.

We have ventured to give this sketch of our journey in Switzerland, as some apology for the strength of the opinion we have formed on the necessity which exists for the establishment of a training school for the teachers of pauper children in this country. Our inquiries were not confined to this object; but both here, at Paris, in Holland, and in Germany, we bought every book which we thought might be useful in our future labors; and in every canton we were careful to collect all the laws relating to education, the regulations of the normal and elementary schools, and the by-laws by which these institutions were governed.

In the orphan schools which have emanated from Pestalozzi and De Fellenberg, we found the type which has assisted us in our subsequent labors. In walking with M. De Fellenberg through Hofwyl, we listened to the precepts which we think most applicable to the education of the pauper class. In the normal school of the canton of Thurgovia, and in the orphan schools of St. Gall and Appenzell, we found the development of those principles so far successful as to assure us of their practical utility. * * *

We were anxious that a work of such importance should be undertaken by the authorities most competent to carry it into execution successfully, and we painfully felt how inadequate our own resources and experience were for the management of such an experiment; but after various inquiries, which were attended with few encouraging results, we thought that as a last resort we should not incur the charge of presumption, if, in private and unaided, we endeavored to work out the first steps of the establishment of an institution for the training of teachers, which we hoped might afterward be intrusted to abler hands. We determined, therefore, to devote a certain portion of our own means to this object, believing that when the scheme of the institution was sufficiently mature to enable us to speak of results rather than of anticipations, the well-being of 50,000 pauper children would plead its own cause with the government and the public, so as to secure the future prosperity of the establishment.

The task proposed was, to reconcile a simplicity of life not remote from the habits of the humbler classes, with such proficiency in intellectual attainments, such a knowledge of method, and such skill in the art of teaching, as would enable the pupils selected to become efficient masters of elementary schools. We hoped to inspire them with a large sympathy for their own class; to implant in their minds the thought that their chief honor would be to aid in rescuing that class from the misery of ignorance and its attendant vices; to wean them from the influence of that personal competition in a commercial society which leads to sordid aims; to place before them the unsatisfied want of the uneasy and distressed multitude; and to breathe into them the charity which seeks to heal its mental and moral diseases.

We were led to select premises at Battersea, chiefly on account of the very frank and cordial welcome with which the suggestion of our plans was received by the Hon. and Rev. Robert Eden, the vicar of Battersea. Mr. Eden offered the use of his village schools in aid of the training school, as the sphere in which the pupils might obtain a practical acquaintance with the art of instruction. He also undertook to superintend the training school in all that related to religion.

We therefore chose a spacious manor-house close to the Thames, surrounded by a garden of five acres. This house was altered and divided so as to afford a good separate residence to Dr. Kay,* who undertook to superintend the progress of the establishment for a limited period, within which it was hoped that the principles on which the training school was to be conducted would be so far developed as to be in course of prosperous execution, and not likely to perish by being confided to other hands.

In the month of January, 1840, the class-rooms were fitted up with desks on the plan described on the minutes of the Committee of Council, and we furnished the school-house. About the beginning of February some boys were removed from the School of Industry at Norwood, whose conduct had given us confidence in their characters, and who had made a certain proficiency in the elementary instruction of that school.

These boys were chiefly orphans, of little more than thirteen years of age, intended to form a class of apprentices. These apprentices would be bound from the age of fourteen to that of twenty-one, to pursue, under the guidance and direction of the Poor-Law Commission, the vocation of assistant teachers in elementary schools. For this purpose they were to receive instruction at least three years in the training school, and to be employed as pupil teachers for two years at least in the Battersea village school during three hours of every day.

At the termination of this probationary period (if they were able satisfactorily to pass a certain examination) they were to receive a certificate, and to be employed as assistant teachers, under the guidance of experienced and well-conducted masters, in some of the schools of industry for pauper children. They were at this period to be rewarded with a certain remuneration, increasing from year to year, and secured to them by the form of the indenture.

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* For which he paid half the rent and taxes, in addition to his share of the expenses of the school.

If they were unable to satisfy the examiners of their proficiency in every department of elementary instruction, and thus failed in obtaining their certificate, they would continue to receive instruction at Battersea until they had acquired the requisite accomplishments.

The number of pupil teachers of this class has been gradually increased, during the period which has since elapsed, to twenty-four. But it seemed essential to the success of the school that the numbers should increase slowly. Its existence was disclosed only to the immediate circles of our acquaintance, by whom some boys were sent to the school, besides those whom we supported at our own expense. For the clothing, board and lodging, and education of each of these boys, who were confided to our care by certain of our friends, we consented to receive £20 per annum toward the general expenses of the schools.

Besides the class of pupil teachers, we consented to receive young men, to remain at least one year in the establishment, either recommended by our personal friends, or to be trained for the schools of gentlemen with whom we were acquainted. These young men have generally been from twenty to thirty years of age.

The course of instruction, and the nature of the discipline adopted for the training of these young men, will be described in detail. This class now amounts to nine, a number accumulated only by very gradual accessions, as we were by no means desirous to attract many students until our plans were more mature, and the instruments of our labor were tried and approved.

The domestic arrangements were conducted with great simplicity, because it was desirable that the pupils should be prepared for a life of self-denial. A sphere of great usefulness might require the labors of a man ready to live among the peasantry on their own level,—to mingle with them in their habitations,—to partake their frugal or even coarse meals,—and to seem their equal only, though their instructor and guide. It was desirable, therefore, that the diet should be as frugal as was consistent with constant activity of mind, and some hours of steady and vigorous labor, and that it should not pamper the appetite by its quality or its variety.

The whole household-work was committed to the charge of the boys and young men; and for this purpose the duties of each were appointed every fortnight, in order that they might be equally shared by all. The young men above twenty years of age did not aid in the scouring of the floors and stairs, nor clean the shoes, grates, and yards, nor assist in the serving and waiting at meals, the preparation of vegetables and other garden-stuff for the cook. But the making of beds and all other domestic duty was a common lot; and the young men acted as superintendents of the other work.

This was performed with cheerfulness, though it was some time before the requisite skill was attained; and perfect order and cleanliness have been found among the habits most difficult to secure. The pupils and students were carefully informed, that these arrangements were intended to prepare them for the discharge of serious duties in an humble sphere, and to nerve their minds for the trials and vicissitudes of life.

The masters partook the same diet as the pupils, sitting in the center of the room, and assisting in the carving. They encouraged familiar conversation (avoiding the extremes of levity or seriousness) at the meals, but on equal terms with their scholars, with the exception only of the respect involuntarily paid them.

After a short time a cow was bought, and committed to the charge of one of the elder boys. Three pigs were afterward added to the stock, then three goats, and subsequently poultry and a second cow. These animals were all fed and tended, and the cows were daily milked, by the pupil teachers. It seemed important that they should learn to tend animals with care and gentleness; that they should understand the habits and the mode of managing these particular animals, because the schoolmaster in a rural parish often has a common or forest-right of pasture for his cow, and a forest-run for his pig or goat, and might thus, with a little skill, be provided with the means of healthful occupation in his hours of leisure, and of providing for the comfort of his family.

Moreover, such employments were deemed important, as giving the pupils, by actual experience, some knowledge of a peasant's life, and, therefore, truer and closer sympathy with his lot. They would be able to render their teaching instructive, by adapting it to the actual condition and associations of those to whom it would be addressed. They would be in less danger of despising the laborer's daily toil in comparison with intellectual pursuits, and of being led by their own attainments to form a false estimate of their position in relation to the class to which they belonged, and which they were destined to instruct. The teacher of the peasant's child occupies, as it were, the father's place, in the performance of duties from which the father is separated by his daily toil, and unhappily, at present, by his want of knowledge and skill. But the schoolmaster ought to be prepared in thought and feeling to do the peasant-father's duty, by having sentiments in common with him, and among these an honest pride in the labor of his hands, in his strength, his manual skill, his robust health, and the manly vigor of his body and mind.

At first, four hours were devoted every day to labor in the garden. The whole school rose at half past five. The household-work occupied the pupil teachers altogether, and the students partially, till a quarter to seven o'clock. At a quarter to seven they marched into the garden, and worked till a quarter to eight, when they were summoned to prayers. They then marched to the tool-house, deposited their implements, washed, and assembled at prayers at eight o'clock. At half past eight they breakfasted. From nine to twelve they were in school. They worked at the garden from twelve to one, when they dined. They resumed their labor in the garden at two, and returned to their classes at three, where they were engaged till five, when they worked another hour in the garden. At six they supped, and spent from seven to nine in their classes. At nine, evening prayers were read, and immediately afterward they retired to rest. * * *

In these labors the pupils and students rapidly gained strength. They almost all soon wore the hue of health. Their food was frugal, and they returned to it with appetites which were not easily satisfied. The most delicate soon lost all their ailments. * * *

The gymnastic frame and the horizontal and parallel bars were not erected until the constitutional and muscular powers of the pupils and students had been invigorated by labor. After a few months' daily work in the garden, the drill was substituted for garden-work during one hour daily. The marching exercise and extension movements were practiced for several weeks; then the gymnastic apparatus was erected, and the drill and gymnastic exercise succeeded each other on alternate evenings. The knowledge of the marching exercise is very useful in enabling a teacher to secure precision and order in the movements of the classes, or of his entire school, and to pay a due regard to the carriage of each child. A slouching gait is at least a sign of vulgarity, if it be not a proof of careless habits—of an inattention to the decencies and proprieties of life, which in other matters occasion discomfort in the laborer's household. Habits of cleanliness, punctuality, and promptitude are not very compatible with indolence, nor with that careless lounging which frequently squanders not only the laborer's time, but his means, and leads his awkward steps to the village tavern. In giving the child an erect and manly gait, a firm and regular step, precision and rapidity in his movements, promptitude in obedience to commands, and particularly neatness in his apparel and person, we are insensibly laying the foundation of moral habits, most intimately connected with the personal comfort and the happiness of the future laborer's family. We are giving a practical moral lesson, perhaps more powerful than the precepts which are inculcated by words. Those who are accustomed to the management of large schools know of how much importance such lessons are to the establishment of that order and quiet which is the characteristic of the Dutch schools, and which is essential to great success in large schools.

The gymnastic exercises were intended, in like manner, to prepare the teachers to superintend the exercises and amusements of the school play-ground; to instruct the children systematically in those graduated trials of strength, activity, and adroitness, by which the muscles are developed and the frame is prepared for sustaining prolonged or sudden efforts. The play-ground of the school is so important a means of separating the children from the vicious companions and evil example of the street or lane, and of prolonging the moral influence of the master over the habits and thoughts of his scholars, that expedients which increase its attractions are important, and especially those which enable the master to mingle with his scholars usefully and cheerfully. The schools of the Canton de Vaud are generally furnished with the proper apparatus for this purpose, and we frequently observed it in France and Germany.

The physical training of our charge was not confined to these labors and exercises. Occasionally Dr. Kay accompanied them in long walking excursions into the country, in which they spent the whole day in visiting some distant school, or remarkable building connected with historical associations, or some scene replete with other forms of instruction. In those excursions their habits of observation were cultivated, their attention was directed to what was most remarkable, and to such facts and objects as might have escaped observation from their comparative obscurity. Their strength was taxed by the length of the excursion, as far as was deemed prudent; and after their return home they were requested to write an account of what they had seen, in order to afford evidence of the nature of the impressions which the excursion had produced.

Such excursions usefully interrupted the ordinary routine of the school, and afforded a pleasing variety in the intercourse between ourselves and the teachers and pupils. They spurred the physical activity of the students, and taught them habits of endurance, as they seldom returned without being considerably fatigued.

Such excursions are common to the best normal schools of Switzerland. It is very evident to the educators of Switzerland that to neglect to take their pupils forth to read the great truths left on record on every side of them in the extraordinary features of that country, would betray an indifference to nature, and to its influence on the development of the human intelligence, proving that the educator had most limited views of his mission, and of the means by which its high purposes were to be accomplished.

The great natural records of Switzerland, and its historical recollections, abound with subjects for instructive commentary, of which the professors of the normal schools avail themselves in their autumnal excursions with their pupils. The natural features of the country; its drainage, soils, agriculture; the causes which have affected the settlement of its inhabitants and its institutions; the circumstances which have assisted in the formation of the national character, and have thus made the history of their country, are more clearly apprehended by lessons gathered in the presence of facts typical of other facts scattered over hill and valley. England is so rich in historical recollections, and in the monuments by which the former periods of her history are linked with the present time, that it would seem to be a not unimportant duty of the educator to avail himself of such facts as lie within the range of his observation, in order that the historical knowledge of his scholar may be associated with these records, marking the progress of civilization in his native country. Few schools are placed beyond the reach of such means of instruction. Where they do not exist, the country must present some natural features worthy of being perused. These should not be neglected. In book-learning there is always a danger that the thing signified may not be discerned through the sign. The child may acquire words instead of thoughts. To have a clear and earnest conviction of the reality of the things signified, the object of the child's instruction should as frequently as possible be brought under its eye. Thus, Pestalozzi was careful to devise lessons on objects in which, by actual contact with the sense, the children were led to discern qualities which they afterward described in words. Such lessons have no meaning to persons who are satisfied with instruction by rote.

The excursions of the directors of the Swiss normal schools also serve the purpose of breaking for a time an almost conventual seclusion, which forms a characteristic of establishments in which the education of the habits, as well as the instruction of the intelligence, is kept in view. These excursions in Switzerland extend to several days, and even longer, in schools of the more wealthy classes. The pupils are thus thrown in contact with actual society; their resources are taxed by the incidents of each day; their moral qualities are sometimes tried, and they obtain a glimpse of the perspective of their future life. It is not only important in this way to know what the condition of society is before the pupil is required to enter it, but it is also necessary to keep constantly before his eye the end and aim of education—that it is a preparation for the duties of his future life, and to understand in what respect each department of his studies is adapted to prepare him for the actual performance of those duties. For each class of society there is an appropriate education. The normal schools of Switzerland are founded on this principle. None are admitted who are not devoted to the vocation of masters of elementary schools. The three or four years of their residence in the school are considered all too short for a complete preparation for these functions. The time, therefore, is consumed in appropriate studies, care being taken that these studies are so conducted as to discipline and develop the intelligence; to form habits of thought and action; and to inspire the pupil with principles on which he may repose in the discharge of his duties.

Among these studies and objects, the actual condition of the laboring class, its necessities, resources, and intelligence, form a most important element. The teachers go forth to observe for themselves; they come back to receive further instruction from their master. They are led to anticipate their own relations to the commune or parish in which their future school will be placed. They are prepared by instruction to fulfill certain of the communal duties which may usefully devolve upon them; such as registrar, precentor, or leader of the church choir, and clerk to the associations of the village. They receive familiar expositions of the law affecting the fulfillment of these duties.

The benefits derived from these arrangements are great; not only in furnishing these rural communes with men competent to the discharge of their duties, but the anticipations of future utility, and the conviction that their present studies infold the germ of their future life, give an interest to their pursuits, which it would be difficult to communicate, if the sense of their importance were more vague and indistinct.

To this end, in the excursions from Battersea we have been careful to enter the schools on our route, and lessons have been given on the duties attaching to the offices which may be properly discharged by a village schoolmaster, in connection with his duty of instructing the young.

This general sketch may suffice to give an idea of the external relations of the life of a student in the training school, with the important exception of that portion of his time devoted to the acquirement of a practical knowledge of the duties of a schoolmaster in the village school. This may be more conveniently considered in connection with the intellectual pursuits of the school. We now proceed to regard the school as a *household*, and to give a brief sketch of its familiar relations.

The most obvious truth lay at the threshold—a family can only subsist harmoniously by mutual love confidence, and respect. We did not seek to put the tutors into situations of inaccessible authority, but to place them in the parental seat, to receive the willing respect and obedience of their pupils, and to act as the elder brothers of the young men. The residence of one of us for a certain period, in near connection with them, appeared necessary to give that tone to the familiar intercourse which would enable the tutors to conduct the instruction, and to maintain the discipline, so as to be at once the friends and guides of their charge.

It was desirable that the tutors should reside in the house. They rose at the same hours with the scholars (except when prevented by sickness), and superintended more or less the general routine. Since the numbers have become greater, and the duties more laborious, it has been found necessary that the superintendence of the periods of labor should be committed to each tutor alternately. They have set the example in working, frequently giving assistance in the severest labor, or that which was least attractive.

In the autumn, some extensive alterations of the premises were to a large extent effected by the assistance of the entire school. The tutors not only superintended, but assisted in the work. Mr. Tate contributed his mechanical knowledge, and Mr. Horne assisted in the execution of the details. In the cheerful industry displayed on this and on other similar occasions, we have witnessed with satisfaction one of the best fruits of the discipline of the school. The conceit of the pedagogue is not likely to arise among either students or masters who cheerfully handle the trowel, the saw, or carry mortar in a hod to the top of the building; such simplicity of life is not very consistent with that vanity which occasions insincerity. But freedom from this vice is essential to that harmonious interchange of kind offices and mutual respect which we were anxious to preserve.

The diet of the household is simple. The fruits and vegetables of the garden afford the chief variety, without luxury. The teachers sit in the midst of their scholars. The familiar intercourse of the meals is intended to be a means of cultivating kindly affections, and of insuring that the example of the master shall insensibly form the habits of the scholar. Every day confirms the growing importance of these arrangements.

It has been an object of especial care that the morning and evening prayers should be conducted with solemnity. A hall has been prepared for this service, which is conducted at seven o'clock every morning in that place. A passage of Scripture having been read, a portion of a psalm is chanted, or they sing a hymn; and prayers follow, generally from the family selection prepared by the Bishop of London. The evening service is conducted in a similar manner. The solemnity of the music, which is performed in four parts, is an important means of rendering the family devotion impressive. We trust that the benefits derived from these services may not be transient, but that the masters reared in this school will remember the household devotions, and will maintain in their own dwellings and schools the family rite with equal care.

Quiet has been enjoined on the pupils in retiring to rest.

The Sunday has been partially occupied by its appropriate studies. The services of the church have been attended morning and evening; and, besides a certain period devoted to the study of the formularies, the evening has been spent in writing out from memory a copious abstract of one of the sermons. At eight o'clock these compositions have been read and commented upon in the presence of the whole school; and a most useful opportunity has been afforded for religious instruction, besides the daily instruction in the Bible. Mr. Eden has likewise attended the school on Friday, and examined the classes in their acquaintance with the Holy Scriptures and formularies of the church. The religious department, generally, is under his superintendence.

The household and external life of the school are so interwoven with the lessons, that it becomes necessary to consider some of their details together, before the intellectual instruction is separately treated.

With pupils and students alike, it was found necessary to commence at an early stage of instruction, and to furnish them with the humblest elements of knowledge. The time which has elapsed since the school has opened ought, therefore, to be regarded as a preparatory period, similar to that which, in Germany, is spent from the time of leaving the primary school to sixteen, the period of entering the normal school, in what is called a preparatory training school.

As such preparatory schools do not exist in this country, we had no alternative. We selected the boys of the most promising character, and determined to wade through the period of preparation, and ultimately to create a preparatory class in the school itself. Our design was to examine the pupils of this class at the end of the first year, and to grant to such of them as gave proof of a certain degree of proficiency a certificate as *Candidates* of the training school. At the end of the second year's course of instruction, it is intended that a second examination shall occur, in which proficients may obtain the certificate of *Scholar;* and at the close of the ordinary course, in the third year, another examination is to be held, in which the certificate of *Master* will be conferred on those who have attained a certain rank intellectually, and who support their claims by a correct moral deportment.

Training schools, developed on this design, would therefore consist of—

1. Preparatory classes of students and pupils. 2. A class of Candidates. 3. A class of Scholars. And some students, who had obtained the certificate of Master, might remain in the school in preparation for special duties as the Mas-

ters of important *district schools*, or as Tutors in other training schools. These students would constitute—4. A class of Masters.

As soon as the attainments of the students and pupils appeared to warrant the experiment, an hour was daily appropriated to examination by means of questions written on the board before the class, the replies to which were worked on paper, in silence, in the presence of one of the tutors. This hour is, on successive days of the week, appropriated to different subjects, viz.: grammar, etymology, arithmetic, mensuration, algebra, mechanics, geography, and biblical knowledge. The examination papers are then carefully examined by the tutor to whose department they belong, in order that the value of the reply to each question may be determined in reference to mean numbers, 3, 4, 5, and 6. These mean numbers are used to express the comparative difficulty of every question, and the greatest merit of each reply is expressed by the numbers 6, 8, and 10 and 12 respectively, the lowest degree of merit being indicated by 1.

The sum of the numbers thus attached to each answer is entered in the examination-book, opposite to the name of each pupil. These numbers are added up at the end of the week, and reduced to an average by dividing them by the number of days of examination which have occurred in the week. In a similar manner, at the end of the month, the sum of the weekly averages is, for the sake of convenience, reduced by dividing them by four; and a convenient number is thus obtained, expressing the intellectual progress of each boy. These numbers are not published in the school, but are reserved as an element by which we may be enabled to award the certificates of Candidate, Scholar, and Master.

The examination for the quarterly certificates will necessarily also include the inspection of the writing, drawings, abstracts, and compositions. Oral examination will be required to ascertain the degree of promptitude and ease in expression of each pupil. They will likewise be required to give demonstrations of problems in arithmetic, algebra, and mechanics, on the blackboard; to describe the geography of a district in the form of a lecture, and to conduct a class before us, ere we award the certificates.

The examination of the pupils will gradually rise in importance, and the quarterly examinations will be marked by a progressive character, leading to the three chief examinations, for the certificates of Candidate, Scholar, and Master, which will be distinguished from each other, both as respects the nature and number of the acquirements, and by the degree of proficiency required in some branches which will be common to the three periods of study.

In another department of registration we have thought it important to avoid certain errors of principle to which such registers appear to be liable. We have been anxious to have a record of some parts of moral conduct connected with habits formed in the school, but we have not attempted to register *moral merit*. Such registers are at best very difficult to keep. They occasion rivalry, and often hypocrisy. On this account we did not deem it advisable to require that they should be kept; but it was important that we should be informed of certain errors interfering with the formation of habits of punctuality, industry, cleanliness, order, and subordination; and registers were devised for noting deviations from propriety in these respects. First, a *time-book* is directed to be kept, in which the observance of the hour of rising, and of the successive periods marked in the routine of the school is noted, in order that any general cause of aberration may meet the eye at once. Secondly, one book is kept by the superintendents appointed from among the students to inspect the *household work above stairs*, another in relation to the *household work below stairs*, and a third by the tutor having charge of *out-door labor*. In these books the duties assigned to each pupil are entered opposite to his name. The superintendent, at the expiration of the period allotted to the work, marks in columns under each of the following heads,—Subordination, Industry, Cleanliness, Order,—the extent of deviation from propriety of conduct by numbers varying from 1 to 4.

The register of punctuality in classes is kept by writing opposite to each pupil's name the number of minutes which elapse after the proper period before he enters the class. The sum of the numbers recorded in these books denotes the extent of errors in habits and manners into which any of the pupils fall, and directs our attention to the fact. Such records would, in connection with the results of the examinations, enable us to determine whether, in reference to each period, a certificate of *Candidate*, *Scholar*, or *Master*, of the *first*, *second*, or *third* degree, should be granted.

The reports of the superintendents are presented to Dr. Kay immediately after morning prayers. The record is read in the presence of the school, and any appeal against the entry heard. At this period the relation which the entire discipline holds to the future pursuits of the pupils is from time to time made familiar to them by simple expositions of the principles by which it is regulated. * * *

This is the *household life* of the school. Brief hints only of the principles which have determined and regulated the preparatory course can find a place in the remarks we have to offer on the preparatory course.

The students have been stimulated in their application by a constant sense of the practical utility of their intellectual labors. After morning prayers, they are from day to day reminded of the connection between their present and future pursuits, and informed how every part of the discipline and study has a direct relation to the duties of a schoolmaster. The conviction thus created becomes a powerful incentive to exertion, which might be wanting if those studies were selected only because they were important as a discipline of the mind.

The sense of practical utility seems as important to the earnestness of the student as the lively conviction attending object teaching in the early and simplest form of elementary instruction. In the earliest steps an acquaintance with the real is necessary to lively conceptions of truth, and at a later period a sense of the value of knowledge resulting from *experience* inspires the strongest conviction of the dignity and importance of all truth, where its immediate practical utility is not obvious.

Far, therefore, from fearing that the sense of the practical utility of these studies will lead the students to measure the value of all truth by a low standard, their pursuits have been regulated by the conviction, that the most certain method of attaining a strong sense of the value of truths, not readily applicable to immediate use, is to ascertain by experience the importance of those which can be readily measured by the standard of practical utility. Thus we approach the conception of the momentum of a planet moving in its orbit, from ascertaining the momentum of bodies whose weight and velocity we can measure by the simplest observations. From the level of the experience of the practical utility of certain common truths, the mind gradually ascends to the more abstract, whose importance hence becomes more easily apparent, though their present application is not obvious, and in this way the thoughts most safely approach the most difficult abstractions.

In the humble pursuits of the preparatory course, a lively sense of the utility of their studies has likewise been maintained by the method of instruction adopted. Nothing has been taught *dogmatically*, but every thing by the combination of the simplest elements, i. e. the course which a discoverer must have trod has been followed, and the way in which truths have been ascertained pointed out by a synthetical demonstration of each successive step. The labor of the previous analysis of the subject is the duty of the teacher, and is thus removed from the child.

Having ascertained what the pupil knows, the teacher endeavors to lead him by gentle and easy steps from the known to the unknown. The instruction, in the whole preparatory course, is chiefly oral, and is illustrated, as much as possible, by appeals to nature, and by demonstrations. Books are not resorted to until the teacher is convinced that the mind of his pupil is in a state of healthful activity; that there has been awakened in him a lively interest in truth, and that he has become acquainted practically with the inductive method of acquiring knowledge. At this stage the rules, the principles of which have been orally communicated, and with whose application he is familiar, are committed to memory from books, to serve as a means of recalling more readily the knowledge and skill thus attained. This course is Pestalozzian, and, it will be perceived, is the reverse of the method usually followed, which consists in giving the pupil the rule first. Experience, however, has confirmed us in the superiority of the plan we have pursued. Sometimes a book, as for example a work on Physical Geography, is put into his hands, in order that it may be carefully read, and that the student may prepare himself to give before the class a verbal abstract of the chapter selected for this purpose, and to answer such questions as may be proposed to him, either by the tutor or by his fellows. During the preparatory course exercises of this kind have not been so numerous as they will be in the more advanced stages of instruction. Until habits of attention and steady application had been formed, it seemed undesirable to allow to the pupils hours for self-sustained study, or voluntary occupation. Constant superintendence is necessary to the formation of correct habits, in these and in all other respects, in the preparatory course. The entire day is, therefore, occupied with a succession of engagements in household work and out-door labor, devotional exercises, meals, and instruction. Recreation is sought in change of employment. These changes afford such pleasure, and the sense of utility and duty is so constantly maintained, that recreation in the ordinary sense is not needed. Leisure from such occupations is never sought excepting to write a letter to a friend, or occasionally to visit some near relative. The pupils all present an air of cheerfulness. They proceed from one lesson to another, and to their several occupations, with an elasticity of mind which affords the best proof that the mental and physical effects of the training are auspicious.

In the early steps toward the formation of correct habits, it is necessary that (until the power of self-guidance is obtained) the pupil should be constantly under the eye of a master, not disposed to exercise authority so much as to give assistance and advice. Before the habit of self-direction is formed, it is therefore pernicious to leave much time at the disposal of the pupil. Proper intellectual and moral aims must be inspired, and the pupil must attain a knowledge of the mode of employing his time with skill, usefully, and under the guidance of right motives, ere he can be properly left to the spontaneous suggestions of his own mind. Here, therefore, the moral and the intellectual training are in the closest harmony. The formation of correct habits, and the growth of right sentiments, ought to precede such confidence in the pupil's powers of self-direction, as is implied in leaving him either much time unoccupied, or in which his labors are not under the immediate superintendence of his teacher.

In the preparatory course, therefore, the whole time is employed under superintendence, but toward the close of the course a gradual trial of the pupil's powers of self-guidance is commenced; first, by intrusting him with certain studies unassisted by the teacher. Those who zealously and successfully employ their time will, by degrees, be intrusted with a greater period for self-sustained intellectual or physical exertion. Further evidence of the existence of the proper qualities will lead to a more liberal confidence, until habits of application and the power of pursuing their studies successfully, and without assistance, are attained.

The subjects of the preparatory course were strictly rudimental. It will be found that the knowledge obtained in the elementary schools now in existence is a very meager preparation for the studies of a training school for teachers. Until the elementary schools are improved, it will be found necessary to go to the very roots of all knowledge, and to rearrange such knowledge as the pupils have attained, in harmony with the principles on which they must ultimately communicate it to others. Many of our pupils enter the school with the broadest provincial dialect, scarcely able to read with fluency and precision, much less with ease and expression. Some were ill furnished with the commonest rules of arithmetic, and wrote clumsily and slowly.

They have been made acquainted with the *phonic* method of teaching to read practiced in Germany. Their defects of pronunciation have been corrected to a large extent by the adoption of this method, and by means of deliberate and emphatic syllabic reading, in a well-sustained and correct tone. The principles on which the *laut* or *phonic* method depends have been explained at considerable length as a part of the course of lessons on method.

We have deemed it of paramount importance that they should acquire a thorough knowledge of the elements and structure of the English language. The lessons in reading were in the first place made the means of leading them to an examination of the structure of sentences, and practical oral lessons were given on grammar and etymology according to the method pursued by Mr. Wood in the Edinburgh Sessional School. The results of these exercises were tested by the lessons of dictation and of composition which accompanied the early stages of this course, and by which a timely sense of the utility of a knowledge of grammatical construction and of the etymological relations of words was developed. As soon as this feeling was created, the oral instruction in grammar assumed a more positive form. The theory on which the rules were founded was explained, and the several laws, when well understood, were dictated in the least exceptionable formulæ, and were written out and committed to memory. In this way they proceeded through the whole of the theory and rules of grammar before they were intrusted with any book on the subject, lest they should depend for their knowledge on a mere effort of the memory to retain a formula not well understood.

At each stage of their advance, corresponding exercises were resorted to, in order to familiarize them with the application of the rules.

When they had in this way passed through the ordinary course of grammatical instruction, they were intrusted with books to enable them to give the last degree of precision to their conceptions.

In etymology the lessons were in like manner practical and oral. They were first derived from the reading-lessons of the day, and applied to the exercises and examinations accompanying the course, and, after a certain progress had been made, their further advance was insured by systematic lessons from books.

A course of reading in English literature, by which the taste may be refined by an acquaintance with the best models of style, and with those authors whose works have exercised the most beneficial influence on the mind of this nation, has necessarily been postponed to another part of the course. It, however, forms one of the most important elements in the conception of the objects to be attained in a training school, that the teacher should be inspired with a discriminating but earnest admiration for those gifts of great minds to English literature which are alike the property of the peasant and the peer; national treasures which are among the most legitimate sources of national feelings.

Those who have had close intercourse with the laboring classes well know with what difficulty they comprehend words not of a Saxon origin, and how frequently addresses to them are unintelligible from the continual use of terms of a Latin or Greek derivation; yet the daily language of the middling and upper classes abounds with such words—many of the formularies of our church are full of them, and hardly a sermon is preached which does not in every page contain numerous examples of their use. Phrases of this sort are so naturalized in the language of the educated classes, that entirely to omit them has the appearance of pedantry and baldness, and even disgusts persons of taste and refinement. Therefore, in addressing a mixed congregation, it seems impossible to avoid using them, and the only mode of meeting the inconvenience alluded to is to instruct the humbler classes in their meaning. The method we have adopted for this purpose has been copied from that first introduced in the Edinburgh Sessional Schools; every compound word is analyzed, and the separate meaning of each member pointed out, so that, at present, there are few words in the English language which our pupils cannot thoroughly comprehend, and from their acquaintance with the common roots and principles of etymology, the new compound terms, which the demands of civilization are daily introducing, are almost immediately understood by them. We believe that there are few acquirements more conducive to clearness of thought, or that can be more usefully introduced into common schools, than a thorough knowledge of the English language, and that the absence of it gives power to the illiterate teacher and demagogue, and deprives the lettered man of his just influence.

Similar remarks might be extended to style. It is equally obvious that the educated use sentences of a construction presenting difficulties to the vulgar which are frequently almost insurmountable. It is, therefore, not only necessary that the meaning of words should be taught on a logical system in our elementary schools, but that the children should be made familiar with extracts from our best authors on subjects suited to their capacity. It cannot be permitted to remain the opprobrium of this country that its greatest minds have bequeathed their thoughts to the nation in a style at once pure and simple, but still inaccessible to the intelligence of the great body of the people.

In *writing*, they were trained, as soon as the various books could be prepared, according to the method[*] of Mulhauser, which was translated and placed in the hands of the teachers for that purpose.

In like manner, in *arithmetic*, it has been deemed desirable to put them in possession of the pre-eminently synthetical method of Pestalozzi. As soon as the requisite tables and series of lessons, analyzed to the simplest elements, could be procured, the principles on which complex numerical combinations rest were rendered familiar to them, by leading the pupils through the earlier course of Pestalozzi's lessons on numbers, from simple unity to compound fractional quantities; connecting with them the series of exercises in mental arithmetic which they are so well calculated to introduce and to illustrate. The use of such a method dispels the gloom which might attend the most expert use of the common rules of arithmetic, and which commonly afford the pupil little light to guide his steps off the beaten path illuminated by the rule.

While these lessons have been in progress, the common rules of arithmetic have been examined by the light of this method. Their theory has been explained, and by constant practice the pupils have been led to acquire expertness in them, as well as to pursue the common principles on which they rest, and to ascertain the practical range within which each rule ought to be employed. The ordinary lessons on mental arithmetic have taken their place in the course of instruction separately from the peculiar rules which belong to Pestalozzi's series.

These lessons also prepared the pupils for proceeding at an early period in a similar manner with the elements of algebra, and with practical lessons in mensuration and land-surveying.

These last subjects were considered of peculiar importance, as comprising one of the most useful industrial developments of a knowledge of the laws of number. Unless, in elementary schools, the instruction proceed beyond the knowledge of abstract rules, to their actual application to the practical necessities of life, the scholar will have little interest in his studies, because he will not perceive their importance; and moreover, when he leaves the school, they will be of little use, because he has not learned to apply his knowledge to any purpose. On this account, boys who have been educated in common elementary schools, are frequently found, in a few years after they have left, to have forgotten the greater part even of the slender amount of knowledge they had acquired.

The use of arithmetic to the carpenter, the builder, the laborer, and artisan, ought to be developed by teaching mensuration and land-surveying in elementary schools. If the scholars do not remain long enough to attain so high a range, the same principle should be applied to every step of their progress. The practical application of the simplest rules should be shown by familiar examples. As soon as the child can count, he should be made to count objects, such as money, the figures on the face of a clock, &c. When he can add, he should have before him shop-bills, accounts of the expenditure of earnings, accounts of wages. In every arithmetical rule similar useful exercises are a part of the art of a teacher, whose sincere desire is to fit his pupil for the application of his knowledge to the duties of life, the preparation for which should be always suggested to the pupil's mind as a powerful incentive to action. These future duties should be always placed in a cheering and hopeful point of view. The mere repetition of a table of numbers has less of education in it than a drill in the *balance-step*.

Practical instruction in the *book-keeping* necessary for the management of the household was for these reasons given to those who acted as stewards; accounts were kept of the seeds, manure, and garden produce, &c., as preparatory to a course of book-keeping, which will follow.

[†] The recently rapid development of the industry and commerce of this

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[*] See a description of Mulhauser's method, p. 250.

[†] It is somewhat remarkable that since this paragraph was written I should have received a letter from one of the principal directors of a railway company, in which he informs me that the frequent recurrence of accidents had induced the directors of the railway to make a careful examination into their causes. The directors rose from this inquiry convinced that these accidents were, to a large extent, attributable to the ignorance of the men whom they had been obliged to

country by machinery, creates a want for well-instructed mechanics, which, in the present state of education, it will be difficult adequately to supply. The steam-engines which drain our coal-fields and mineral veins and beds; which whirl along every railroad; which toil on the surface of every river, and issue from every estuary, are committed to the charge of men of some practical skill, but of mean education. The mental resources of the classes who are practically intrusted with the guidance of this great development of national power should not be left uncultivated. This new force has grown rapidly, in consequence of the genius of the people, and the natural resources of this island, and in spite of their ignorance. But our supremacy at sea, and our manufacturing and commercial prosperity (inseparable elements), depend on the successful progress of those arts by which our present position has been attained.

On this account, we have deemed inseparable from the education of a schoolmaster a knowledge of the *elements of mechanics* and of the laws of heat, sufficient to enable him to explain the structure of the various kinds of steam-engines in use in this country. This instruction has proved one of the chief features even of the preparatory course, as we feared that some of the young men might leave the establishment as soon as they had obtained the certificates of candidates, and we were unwilling that they should go forth without some knowledge at least of one of the chief elements of our national prosperity, or altogether without power to make the workingman acquainted with the great agent which has had more influence on the destiny of the working classes than any other single fact in our history, and which is probably destined to work still greater changes.

Knowledge and national prosperity are here in strict alliance. Not only do the arts of peace—the success of our trade—our power to compete with foreign rivals—our safety on our railways and in our steam-ships—depend on the spread of this knowledge, but the future defense of this country from foreign aggression can only result from our being superior to every nation in those arts. The schoolmaster is an agent despised at present, but whose importance for the attainment of this end will, by the results of a few years, be placed in bold relief before the public.

The tutor to whom the duty of communicating to the pupils a knowledge of the laws of motion, of the mechanical powers and contrivances, and of the laws of heat, was committed, was selected because he was a self-educated man, and was willing to avail himself of the more popular methods of demonstration, and to postpone the application of his valuable and extensive mathematical acquirements. By his assistance the pupils and students have been led through a series of demonstrations of mechanical combinations, until they were prepared to consider the several parts of the steam-engine, first separately, and in their successive developments and applications, and they are at present acquainted with the more complex combinations in the steam-engines now in use, and with the principles involved in their construction and action.

In *geography*, it has been deemed important that the tutors should proceed by a similar method. The lessons on land-surveying have familiarized the pupils with the nature and uses of maps. As one development of the art of drawing, they have been practiced in map-drawing. For this purpose, among other expedients, the walls of one class-room have been prepared with mastic, in order that bold projections of maps might be made on a great scale.

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employ as engineers, for the want of better; and to the low habits of these men, who, though they do not subject themselves to dismissal by such a defiance of regulations as to be found "*drunk*," are in the habit of stupefying themselves with dram-drinking! The directors of the company had determined that the proper remedy for these evils was to provide amusement and instruction for their men at night, and application has since been made to Mr. Tate, the tutor in mechanics, &c., in the training school, to afford his assistance in delivering lectures on mechanics to the engineers, stokers, and other servants of the company. A large room has been provided for these purposes, and it is understood to be the intention of the company to draw their servants to this room by such amusements as may be more attractive than the tavern—to excite their attention to subjects of instruction appropriate to their duties by a series of popular lectures—and then to open classes, when they may learn mechanics, and such of the elements of natural science as may be useful to them in their calling.

As a part of the amusements, application was made by one of the directors to Mr. Hullah to open a class like those of the artisans of Paris, and to instruct them in singing on the method of Wilhem.—J. P. KAY.

Physical geography has been deemed the true basis of all instruction in the geography of industry and commerce, which ought to form the chief subject of geographical instruction in elementary schools. The tutor has first endeavored to convince the pupils that nothing which presents itself to the eye in a well-drawn map is to be regarded as accidental;. the boldness of the promontories, the deep indenture of the bays, the general bearings of the coast, are all referable to natural laws. In these respects the eastern and western coasts of England are in striking contrast, in appearance, character, and in the circumstances which occasion their peculiarities. The physical geography of England commences with a description of the elevation of the mountain ranges, the different levels, and the drainage of the country. The course, rapidity, and volume of the rivers are referable to the elevation and extent of the country which they drain. From the climate, levels, and drainage, with little further matter, the agricultural tracts of the country may be indicated, and when the great coal-fields and the mineral veins and beds, the depth of the bays and rivers are known, the distribution of the population is found to be in strict relation to certain natural laws. Even the ancient political divisions of the country are, on inspection, found to be in close dependence on its drainage. The counties are river basins, which were the first seats of tribes of population. If any new political distribution were to be made, it would necessarily, in like manner, be affected by some natural law, which it is equally interesting and useful to trace.

Geography, taught in this way, is a constant exercise to the reasoning powers. The pupil is led to trace the mutual dependence of facts, which, in ordinary instruction, are taught as the words of a vocabulary. Geography taught in the ordinary way is as reasonable an acquisition as the catalogue of a museum, which a student might be compelled to learn as a substitute for natural history. A catalogue of towns, rivers, bays, promontories, &c., is even less geography than the well-arranged catalogue of a museum is natural history, because the classification has a logical meaning in the latter case, which is absent in the former.

As a department of geographical instruction, the elements of the use of the globes in connection with nautical astronomy has been cultivated with some diligence.

The outlines only of the history of England have been read, as preparatory to a course of instruction in English history, which is to form one of the studies of the second year. The history of England has been read in the evening as an exercise in the art of reading, and the examinations which have followed have been adapted only to secure general impressions as to the main facts of our history.

Skill in *drawing* was deemed essential to the success of a schoolmaster. Without this art he would be unable to avail himself of the important assistance of the blackboard, on which his demonstrations of the objects of study ought to be delineated. His lessons on the most simple subjects would be wanting demonstrative power, and he would be incapable of proceeding with lessons in mechanics, without skill to delineate the machines of which his lessons treated.

The arts of design have been little cultivated among the workmen of England. Whoever has been accustomed to see the plans of houses and farm buildings, or of public buildings of an humble character from the country, must know the extreme deficiency of our workmen in this application of the art of drawing, where it is closely connected with the comfort of domestic life, and is essential to the skillful performance of public works. The survey now in progress under the Tithe Commissioners affords abundant evidence of the want of skill in map-drawing among the rural surveyors.

The improvement of our machiney for agriculture and manufactures would be in no small degree facilitated, if the art of drawing were a common acquirement among our artisans. Invention is checked by the want of skill in communicating the conception of the inventor, by drawings of all the details of his combination. In all those manufactures of which taste is a principal element, our neighbors, the French, are greatly our superiors, solely, we believe, because the eyes and the hands of all classes are practiced from a very early age in the arts of design. In the elementary schools of Paris, the proficiency of the young pupils in drawing is very remarkable, and the evening schools are filled with young men and adults of mature or even advanced age, engaged in the diligent cultivation of this art. Last Midsummer, in some of the evening schools of the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine, classes of workmen were questioned as to their employments. One was an *ébéniste*, another a founder, another a clock-maker, another a paper-hanger, another an upholsterer; and each was asked his hours of labor, and his motives for attendance. A single example may serve as a type. A man without his coat, whose muscular arms were bared by rolling his shirt-sleeves up to his shoulders, and who, though well washed and clean, wore the marks of toil on his white, horny hands, was sitting with an admirable copy in crayon of *La Donna della Segiola* before him, which he had nearly completed. He was a man about 45 years of age. He said he had risen at five, and had been at work from six o'clock in the morning until seven o'clock in the evening, with brief intervals for meals; and he had entered the evening class at eight o'clock, to remain there till ten. He had pleasure, he said, in drawing, and that a knowledge of the art greatly improved his skill and taste in masonry. He turned round with a good-humored smile, and added, he could live better on less wages than an Englishman, because his drawing cost him less than beer. Some thousand workingmen attend the adult schools every evening in Paris, and the drawing classes comprise great numbers whose skill would occasion much astonishment in this country. The most difficult engravings of the paintings of the Italian masters are copied in crayon with remarkable skill and accuracy. Complex and exquisitely minute architectural details, such, for example, as perspective views of the Duomo at Milan, or the cathedrals at Rouen or Cologne, are drawn in pen and ink, with singular fidelity. Some were drawing from plaster casts and other models. We found such adult schools in many of the chief towns of France. These schools are the sources of the taste and skill in the decorative arts, and in all manufactures of which taste is a prominent element, and which have made the designs for the calico-printers, the silk and ribbon looms, the papers, &c., &c., of France, so superior in taste to those of this country, notwithstanding the superiority of our manufactories in mechanical combinations.

These considerations lead us to account drawing an important department of elementary education. The manufacturers of Lancashire are well aware how difficult it is, from the neglect of the arts of design among the laborers of this country, to procure any skilled draftsmen to design for the cotton or silk manufacturer. The elevation of the national taste in art can only be procured by the constant cultivation of the mind in relation to the beautiful in form and color, by familiarizing the eye with the best models, the works of great artists, and beautiful natural objects. Skill in drawing from nature results from a careful progress through a well-analyzed series of models. The interests of commerce are so intimately connected with the results to be obtained by this branch of elementary education, that there is little chance that it will much longer suffer the grievous neglect it has hitherto experienced.

The drawing classes at Battersea were first exercised in very simple models, formed of oblong pieces of wood, arranged in a great variety of forms by the master, according to the method observed in the Swiss and German schools. These were drawn in common and in isometrical perspective, the laws of perspective being at the same time carefully explained, and the rules applied in each case to the object which the pupil drew. A very little practice made us aware that a method comprising a more minute analysis of form was necessary to the greatest amount of success. Some inquiries which were pursued in Paris put us in possession of the method invented by M. Dupuis; and a series of his models were purchased and brought over at the close of the autumn, for the purpose of making a careful trial of this method. Considerable difficulty was experienced in procuring the services of an artist to superintend the instruction; but at length the application of this method has been commenced, and is in progress.

The experience of the French inspectors of schools (at an early period after the establishment of the system of inspection) convinced them that, to the perfection of *skill in drawing form*, the practice of drawing from models is necessary. The best copyists frequently, or rather generally, were found to fail in drawing even very simple natural objects on their first trials. In the drawing schools at

Paris, in which the most elaborate engravings were admirably copied, an inspector would discover that the pupils were unable to draw correctly the professor's desk and chair. It became, therefore, evident that the copy could not stand in the place of the natural object. Copying works of art might be essential to one department of skill and taste, but it by no means necessarily gave skill in drawing from nature.

M. Dupuis was an inspector, and, observing this defect, he invented a series of models, ascending from a simple line of wire through various combinations to complex figures. These models are fixed on an instrument, on the level of the eye, and may, by the movement of the instrument, be placed in a varying perspective. By this means the pupil may learn to draw the simplest objects, and proceed by gradual steps through a series of combinations, of an almost insensibly increasing difficulty, until he can draw faithfully any object, however complex. The instrument which holds the object enables the teacher, by varying its position, to give at each lesson a series of demonstrations in perspective, applying the rules to objects of a gradually increasing complexity, until they are understood in their relations to the most difficult combinations. Thus practical skill and theoretical knowledge are in harmony in this instruction. The taste may afterward be cultivated by drawing those works of art best adapted to create a just sense of the beautiful in form and color.

That which a workman first requires is mechanical skill in the art of drawing. Nature itself offers many opportunities to cultivate the taste insensibly; and skill can be acquired only by careful and prolonged practice in the art of drawing from nature. In the more advanced parts of the course, we shall be able to satisfy ourselves as to the best mode of using the skill acquired for the formation of the taste.

In the normal schools at Versailles one year's instruction had sufficed to give the pupils a wonderful facility and skill in drawing from models. Some complicated pneumatic apparatus, consisting of glass, mahogany, brass, and in difficult perspective, was drawn rapidly, and with great truth and skill. It is not, however, our intention to carry the instruction of our pupils in this art further than is necessary for the industrial instruction of their future scholars.

Some of the reasons inducing us to attach much importance to the cultivation of *vocal music* have already been briefly indicated. We regard it as a powerful auxiliary in rendering the devotional services of the household, of the parish church, and of the village school, solemn and impressive. Our experience satisfies us that we by no means over-estimated this advantage, though all the results are not yet obtained which we trust will flow from the right use of these means.

Nor were we indifferent to the cheerfulness diffused in schools by the singing of those melodies which are attractive to children, nor unconscious of the moral power which music has when linked with sentiments which it is the object of education to inspire. We regard school songs as an important means of diffusing a cheerful view of the duties of a laborer's life; of diffusing joy and honest pride over English industry. Therefore, to neglect so powerful a moral agent in elementary education as vocal music, would appear to be unpardonable. We availed ourselves of some arrangements which were at this time in progress, under the superintendence of the Committee of Council, for the introduction of the method* of M. Wilhem, which has been singularly successful in France.

A method which has succeeded in attracting thousands of artisans in Paris from low cabarets and miserable gambling-houses, to the study of a science and the practice of a captivating art, deserves the attention of the public. Mr. Hullah, in adapting the method of Wilhem to English tastes and habits, has both simplified and refined it. He has, moreover, adapted to it a considerable number of old English melodies, of great richness and character, which were fast passing into oblivion, and which may be restored to the place they once held in the affections of the people, being now allied with words expressive of the joys and hopes of a laborer's life, and of the true sources of its dignity and happiness.

We have assisted in the development of this method, being convinced that it may tend to elevate the character of our elementary schools, and that it may be of great use throughout the country in restoring many of our best old English melodies to their popularity, and in improving the character of our vocal music in village churches, through the medium of the parochial schoolmaster and his pupils.

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* For a description of Wilhem's method, see p. 275.

When the preparatory course was sufficiently advanced, a series of lectures on the construction and organization of elementary schools, and on the theory and art of teaching, were commenced. They have resembled those given in the German and Swiss schools under the generic term Pædagogik.

They have treated of the general objects of education, and the means of attaining them. The peculiar aims of elementary education; the structure of school-houses in various parts of Europe; the internal arrangement of the desks, forms, and school apparatus, in reference to different methods of instruction, and the varieties of those methods observed in different countries. The theory of the discipline of schools. Its practice, describing in detail the different expedients resorted ,to in different countries for the purpose of procuring order, decorum propriety of posture and manner, regularity and precision in movements, and in changes of classes and exercises, and especially the right means of securing the reverence and the love of the children. This last subject naturally connects the consideration of the mechanical and methodic expedients with the consideration of the sources of the schoolmaster's zeal, activity, and influence, on which much has been said. To these subjects have succeeded lectures on the great leading distinctions in the methods of communicating knowledge. When the distinguishing principles had been described, the characteristic features of the several methods were examined *generally*, and certain peculiar applications of each were treated. The application of these methods to each individual branch of instruction was then commenced, and this part of the course has treated of various methods of teaching to read, especially giving a minute description of the *phonic* method. Of methods of teaching to write, giving a special account of the method of Mulhauser. On the application of writing in various methods of instruction Of methods of teaching to draw, giving a detailed account of that of M. Dupuis Of methods of teaching arithmetic, in which the method of Pestalozzi has been carefully explained, and other expedients examined. This brief sketch may indicate the character of the instruction up to the period of this report. Our desire is to anticipate as little as possible, but, on the contrary, to relate only what *has been done*. We have therefore only to add, that the instruction in Pædagogik is in its preparatory stage, and that the course will be pursued, in relation both to the general theory and practice, and to the special application of the theory and practice to the development of the village school, and of the training school, through the whole period of instruction, as that part of the studies of the pupils by which the mutual relations of these studies are revealed, and their future application anticipated.

We regard these lectures, combined with the zealous labor of the Hon. and Rev. Robert Eden, as the chief means by which, aided by the tutors, such a tone of feeling can be maintained as shall prepare the teachers to enter upon their important duties, actuated by motives which will be the best means of insuring their perseverance, and promoting their success.

The Brothers of the Christian Doctrine, who devote their lives a cheerful sacrifice to the education of the poorer classes of France, can be understood best by those who have visited their Novitiate and schools at Paris. From such persons we expect acquiescence when we say, that their example of Christian zeal is worthy of the imitation of Protestants. Three of the brothers of this order are maintained for a sum which is barely the stipend of one teacher of a school of mutual instruction in Paris. Their schools are unquestionably the best at Paris. Their manners are simple, affectionate, and sincere. The children are singularly attached to them. How could it be otherwise, when they perceive that these good men have no other reward on earth for their manifold labors than that of an approving conscience?

The *régime* of the *Novitiate* is one of considerable austerity. They rise at four. They spend an hour in private devotion, which is followed by two hours of religious exercises in their chapel. They breakfast soon afterward, and are in the day schools of Paris at nine. They dine about noon, and continue their attention to the schools till five. They sup at six, and then many of them are employed in evening schools for the adults from seven to nine, or from eight to ten, when, after prayers, they immediately retire to rest.

No one can enter the schools of the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine without feeling instinctively that he is witnessing a remarkable example of the development of Christian charity.

With such motives should the teachers of elementary schools, and especially those who are called to the arduous duties of training pauper children, go forth to their work. The path of the teacher is strewn with disappointments, if he commence with a mercenary spirit: it is full of encouragement, if he be inspired with the spirit of Christian charity. No skill can compensate adequately for the absence of a pervading religious influence on the character and conduct of the schoolmaster. * * *

The technical instruction in that knowledge which it will be the duty of the pupils to communicate in elementary schools, occupies a much greater portion of the time in the preparatory course than that which will be allotted to such studies in the two subsequent years.

Every month will now bring into greater prominence *instruction, theoretical and practical, in the art of teaching.* The outlines only of a future course of instruction in this most important element of the studies of a training school have been communicated. Some of the principles have been laid down, but the application of these principles to each subject of instruction, and the arrangement of the entire matter of technical knowledge, in accordance with the principles of elementary teaching, is a labor to which a large portion of the future time of the pupils must be devoted.

Those studies which will prepare them for the performance of collateral duties in the village or parish have not been commenced.

The instruction in the management of a garden; in pruning and grafting trees; in the relative qualities of soils, manures, and the rotation of garden crops, is to form a part of the course of instruction, after the certificate of candidate is obtained.

A course on the domestic economy of the poor will be delivered in the same year, which will be followed by another on the means of preserving health, especially with regard to the employments, habits, and wants of the working classes. Some general lectures on the relations of labor and capital will close this course.

From the following extracts from the Report of the Founders of the Institution in 1843, it will be seen that they were induced, after three years' experience, to change one feature of their original plan, and, instead of taking boys of the age of fourteen, to select their candidates for admission from youths who had attained the age of eighteen or twenty years. This change has special reference to teachers designed for large schools in commercial towns and manufacturing districts. They also advise a course of preparatory training, previous to their admission into a Normal School, similar to that pursued in Holland.

In Holland, the elementary schoolmasters of every great town form a society, associated for their common benefit. Their schools are always large, varying in numbers from three to seven hundred, or even a thousand children, who are often assembled in one room. Every master is aided by a certain number of assistants of different ages, and by pupil-teachers.

The course through which a youth passes from a position of distinction, as one of the most successful scholars, to that of master of a school, is obvious. He is apprenticed as a pupil-teacher (an assistant equivalent, in the first stage, to the most superior class of our monitors in England). As pupil-teacher he assists in the instruction of the youngest classes during the day, witnessing and taking part in the general movements of the school, and in the maintenance of discipline and order. He resides with his own family in the city, and before he is admitted apprentice, care is taken to ascertain that he belongs to a well-conducted house hold, and that he will be reared by his parents in habits of religion and order. Every evening all the pupil-teachers of the town are assembled to receive instruction. The society of teachers provides from its own body a succession of instructors, by one of whom, on each night of the week, the pupil-teachers are taught some branch of elementary knowledge necessary to school-keeping. One of the most experienced masters of the town, likewise, gives them lectures on method, and on the art of organizing and conducting a school.

The society of schoolmasters meets from time to time to receive from each of its members an account of the conduct, progress, and qualifications of each pupil-teacher in the town, not only in the evening class, but in the school duties of the day.

On the reputation thus acquired, and preserved, depends the progress of the pupil-teacher in the art of school-keeping. As his experience becomes more mature, and his knowledge increases, he is intrusted with more important matters and higher classes in the school. He undergoes two successive examinations by the Government Inspector, being first admitted candidate and afterward assistant master, and he is then at liberty to complete his course of training by entering the Normal School at *Haarlem*, from which he can obtain the highest certificates of fitness for the duties of his profession.

This appears to us a course of training peculiarly well adapted to the formation of masters for the great schools of large towns, and likewise for supplying these great schools, during the education of the pupil-teacher, with the indispensable aid of a body of assistant masters, without which they must continue to be examples of an economy which can spare nothing adequate to the improvement of the people.

The formation of a body of pupil-teachers in each great town, thus instructed by a society of schoolmasters, is an object worthy of encouragement from the Committee of Council, who might at least provide the fees and charges of apprenticeship, and grant exhibitions for the training of the most successful pupil-teachers in a Normal School at the close of their apprenticeship, even if the Government were indisposed to encounter any of the annual charges incident to the plan.

Few words are requisite to render apparent the difference between the life of a pupil-teacher so trained, and that of a young novice in a Normal School. The familiar life of the parental household, while it exercises a salutary influence on the habits and manners of the young candidate, is not remote from the great scene of exertion in which his future life is to be spent. He is unconsciously prepared by the daily occurrences in his father's family, and by his experience and instruction in the day and evening school, to form a just estimate of the circumstances by which he is surrounded. He is trained from day to day in the management of the artful and corrupt children even of the dregs of the city, and enabled to apply such means as the discipline and instruction of a common school afford, to the improvement of the moral and intellectual condition of the children of the common people. He becomes an agent of civilization, fitted for a peculiar work by habit, and prepared to imbibe during the year or year and a half he may spend in a Normal School those higher maxims of conduct, that more exact knowledge, and those more perfect methods of which it is the proper source. From such a period of training, he returns to his native city, or is sent to some other town, strong in the confidence inspired by his prolonged experience of the peculiar duties he has to perform, either to take a high rank as an assistant master, or to undertake the responsibility of conducting a town school as its chief.

These are the views which have led us to conclude that the admission of *boys* into a Normal School, as distinguished from a *Mother School*, is not a fit preparation for the discharge of the duties of a schoolmaster in a large town.

We have gradually raised the age of admission from 14 to 16, and thence to 18 or 20 years, and we are now of opinion that few or none should be admitted into a Normal School under the latter age.

Besides the reasons already stated why youths under 18 should not be admitted into such a school, there are some arising out of the internal economy of a Normal School of sufficient importance to deserve enumeration.

If youths are admitted, none who have arrived at adult age should be permitted to enter. The youth necessarily enters for a course of training which extends over several years; the adult student commonly enters for a year and a half or two years. The attainments of all are meager on their admission. In the course of a few years, therefore, the youngest pupils are necessarily at the head of the school in their attainments and skill, which is a source of great discouragement to an adult entering such an establishment, and a dangerous distinction to a youth whose acquirements have suddenly raised him intellectually above all in his sphere of life. The tendencies of such a great disparity in the acquirements appropriate to the two classes of age are obviously injurious. We have experienced the consequences of this disparity as a disturbing force in the training schools, and to counteract these tendencies has required a vigilance and provident care, which has increased our labors and anxieties. Few things have been more pleasing than the readiness with which some of the oldest students who have entered the schools have taken their seats in the humblest positions, and passed with patient perseverance through all the elementary drudgery, though boys have held the most prominent positions in the first class, and have occasionally become their instructors. On the other hand, to check the conceit too frequently engendered by a rapid progress, when attended with such contrasts, we have suggested to the masters, that the humble assiduity of the recently entered adult pupil ought to secure an expressive deference and attention.

The intellectual development of the young pupils is a source of care insignificant in comparison with that attending the *formation of their characters*, and this could be accomplished with greater ease and certainty if they were the sole objects of solicitude. But, as members of an establishment into which adults are admitted in an equality or inferiority of position, the discipline is complicated and the sources of error are increased.

For these reasons, we prefer to admit into a Normal School only students of adult age, reared by religious parents, and concerning whose characters and qualifications the most satisfactory testimonials can be procured. The inquiries preliminary to the admission of a student should in all cases, where it may be practicable, extend to his previous habits and occupations, to the character of the household in which he has resided, and the friendships he has formed. In all cases those young men are to be preferred whose previous pursuits warrant some confidence in their having a predilection for the duties of a teacher of the poor.

Our plans have therefore tended to the introduction of young men of 18 years of age and upward for a training of one year and a half, which we are led to regard as the shortest period which it is desirable they should spend in such a school.

With this explanation of a modification of one feature in their original plan, the Report for 1843 proceeds to discuss the main objects of a Normal School.

The main object of a Normal School is the *formation of the character of the schoolmaster*. This was the primary idea which guided our earliest efforts in the establishment of the Battersea Schools on a basis different from that of any previous example in this country. We have submitted to your lordship the reasons which have led us to modify one of the chief features of our plan, but our convictions adhere with undiminished force to the principle on which the schools were originally founded. They were intended to be an institution in which every object was subservient to the *formation of the character of the schoolmaster*, as an intelligent Christian man entering on the instruction of the poor, with religious devotion to his work. If we propose to change the means, the end we have in view is the same. Compelled by the foregoing considerations to think the course of training we proposed for youths does not prepare them for the charge of large schools in manufacturing towns, we are anxious that the system pursued in Holland should be adopted, as a training preparatory to the examination of the pupil-teachers previously to their admission into a Normal School. Finding that the patrons of students and the friends of the establishment are unable, for the most part, to support a longer training for young men than one year and a half, we are more anxious respecting the investigation of their previous characters and connections, and more fastidious as to their intellectual qualifications and acquirements.

'When circumstances thus combine to prevent the residence of the students in the training school for a longer period than a year and a half, the inquiries as to previous character cannot be conducted with too much care, and *the first month of training should, under any circumstances, be regarded as probationary.*

Under these arrangements, also, the impression produced upon the characters of the students during their residence is of paramount importance.

They are commonly selected from an humble sphere. They are the sons of small tradesmen, of bailiffs, of servants, or of superior mechanics. Few have received any education, except that given in a common parochial school. They read and write very imperfectly; are unable to indite a letter correctly; and are seldom skillful, even in the first four rules of arithmetic. Their biblical knowledge is meager and inaccurate, and all their conceptions, not less on religious than on other subjects, are vague and confused, even when they are not also very limited or erroneous. Their habits have seldom prepared them for the severely regular life of the Normal School, much less for the strenuous effort of attention and application required by the daily routine of instruction. Such concentration of the mind would soon derange the health, if the course of training did not provide moderate daily exercise in the garden, at proper intervals. The mental torpor, which at first is an obstacle to improvement, generally passes away in about three months, and from that period the student makes rapid progress in the studies of the school.

These attainments, humble though they be, might prove dangerous to the character of the student, if his intellectual development were the chief concern of the masters.

How easy it would be for him to form an overweening estimate of his knowledge and ability, must be apparent, when it is remembered that he will measure his learning by the standard of that possessed by his own friends and neighbors. He will find himself suddenly raised by a brief course of training to the position of a teacher and example. If his mind were not thoroughly penetrated by religious principle, or if a presumptuous or mercenary tone had been given to his character, he might go forth to bring discredit upon education, by exhibiting a precocious vanity, an insubordinate spirit, or a selfish ambition. He might become, not the gentle and pious guide of the children of the poor, but a hireling into whose mind had sunk the doubts of the skeptic; in whose heart was the worm of social discontent; and who had changed the docility of ignorance and dullness, for the restless impatience of a vulgar and conceited sciolist.

In the formation of the character of the schoolmaster, the discipline of the training school should be so devised as to prepare him for the modest respectability of his lot. He is to be a Christian teacher, following Him who said, "He that will be my disciple, let him take up his cross." Without the spirit of self-denial, he is nothing. His reward must be in his work. There should be great simplicity in the life of such a man.

Obscure and secluded schools need masters of a contented spirit, to whom the training of the children committed to their charge has charms sufficient to concentrate their thoughts and exertions on the humble sphere in which they live, notwithstanding the privations of a life but little superior to the level of the surrounding peasantry. When the scene of the teacher's exertions is in a neighborhood which brings him into association with the middle and upper classes of society, his emoluments will be greater, and he will be surrounded by temptations which, in the absence of a suitable preparation of mind, might rob him of that humility and gentleness which are among the most necessary qualifications of the teacher of a common school.

In the training school, habits should be formed consistent with the modesty of his future life. On this account, we attach peculiar importance to the discipline which we have established at Battersea. Only one servant, besides a cook, has been kept for the domestic duties of the household. The whole household work, with the exception of the scouring of the floors and cooking, is performed by the students; and they likewise not only milk and clean the cows, feed and tend the pigs, but have charge of the stores, wait upon each other, and cultivate the garden. We cannot too emphatically state our opinion that no portion of this work could be omitted, without a proportionate injury to that contentment of spirit, without which the character of the student is liable to be overgrown with the errors we have described.

The garden-work also serves other important ends. Some exercise and recreation from the scholastic labors are indispensable. Nevertheless, a large portion of the day cannot be devoted to it, and when three or four hours only can be spared, care should be taken that the whole of this time is occupied by moderate and healthful exertion in the open air. A period of recreation employed according to the discretion of the students would be liable to abuse. It might often be spent in listless sauntering, or in violent exertion. Or if a portion of the day were thus withdrawn from the observation of the masters of the school, it would prove a period in which associations might be formed among the students inconsistent with the discipline; and habits might spring up to counteract the influence of the instruction and admonition of the masters. In so brief a period of training, it is necessary that the entire conduct of the student should be guided by a superior mind.

Not only, by the daily labor of the garden, are the health and morals of the school influenced, but habits are formed consistent with the student's future lot. It is well both for his own health, and for the comfort of his family, that the schoolmaster should know how to grow his garden stuff, and should be satisfied with innocent recreation near his home.

We have also adhered to the frugal diet which we at first selected for the school. Some little variety has been introduced, but we attach great importance to the students being accustomed to a diet so plain and economical, and to arrangements in their dormitories so simple and devoid of luxury, that in after life they will not in an humble school be visited with a sense of privation, when their scanty fare and mean furniture are compared with the more abundant food and comforts of the training school. We have therefore met every rising complaint respecting either the quantity or quality of the food, or the humble accommodation in the dormitories, with explanations of the importance of forming, in the school, habits of frugality, and of the paramount duty of nurturing a patient spirit, to meet the future privations of the life of a teacher of the poor.

Our experience also leads us to attach much importance to simplicity and propriety of dress. For the younger pupils we had, on this account, prepared a plain dark dress of rifle green, and a working dress of fustian cord. As respects the adults, we have felt the importance of checking the slightest tendency to peculiarity of dress, lest it should degenerate into foppery. We have endeavored to impress on the students that the dress and the manners of the master of a school for the poor should be decorous, but that the prudence of his life should likewise find expression in their simplicity. There should be no habit nor external sign of self-indulgence or vanity.

On the other hand, the master is to be prepared for a life of laborious exertion. He must, therefore, form habits of early rising, and of activity and persevering industry. In the winter, before it is light, the household work must be finished, and the school-rooms prepared by the students for the duties of the day. One hour and a half is thus occupied. After this work is accomplished, one class must assemble winter and summer, at a quarter to seven o'clock, for instruction. The day is filled with the claims of duty requiring the constant exertion of mind and body, until, at half past nine, the household retire to rest.

By this laborious and frugal life, economy of management is reconciled with the efficiency both of the moral and intellectual training of the school, and the master goes forth into the world humble, industrious, and instructed.

But into the student's character higher sentiments must enter, if we rightly conceive the mission of the master of a school for the poor. On the religious condition of the household, under the blessing of God, depends the cultivation of that religious feeling, without which the spirit of self-sacrifice cannot take its right place among the motives which ought to form the mainspring of a schoolmaster's activity.

There is a necessity for incessant vigilance in the management of a training school. The principal should be *wise as a serpent*, while the gentleness of his discipline, and his affectionate solicitude for the well-being of his pupils, should encourage the most unreserved communications with him. Much of his leisure should be devoted to private interviews with the students, and employed in instilling into their minds high principles of action. A cold and repulsive air of authority may preserve the appearance of order, regularity, and submission in the household; but these will prove delusive signs if the principal does not possess the respect and confidence, not to say the affections, of his charge. He should be most accessible, and unwearied in the patience with which he listens to confessions and inquiries. While it is felt to be impossible that he should enter into any compromise with evil, there should be no such severity in his tone of rebuke as to check that confidence which seeks guidance from a superior intelligence. As far as its relation to the principal only is concerned, every fault should be restrained and corrected by a conviction of the pain and anxiety which it causes to an anxious friend, rather than by the fear of a too jealous authority. Thus conscience will gradually be roused by the example of a master, respected for his purity, and loved for his gentleness, and inferior sentiments will be replaced by motives derived from the highest source.

Where so much has to be learned, and where, among other studies, so much religious knowledge must be acquired, there is danger that religion should be regarded chiefly as a subject for the exercise of the intellect. A speculative religious knowledge, without those habits and feelings which are the growth of deeply-seated religious convictions, may be a dangerous acquisition to a teacher of the young. How important, therefore, is it that the religious services of the household should become the means of cultivating a spirit of devotion, and that the religious instruction of the school should be so conducted as not merely to inform the memory, but to master the convictions and to interest the feelings! Religion is not merely to be taught in the school—it must be the element in which the students live.

This religious life is to be nurtured by the example, by the public instruction of the principal, and by his private counsel and admonition; by the religious services of the household; by the personal intercourse of the students, and the habits of private meditation and devotion which they are led to form; by the public worship of the church, and by the acts of charity and self-denial which belong to their future calling.

How important is it that the principal should embody such an example of purity and elevation of character, of gentleness of manners, and of unwearied benevolence, as to increase the power of his teaching, by the respect and conviction which wait upon a consistent life! Into the religious services of the household he should endeavor to inspire such a spirit of devotion as would spread itself through the familiar life, and hallow every season of retirement. The management of the village school affords opportunities for cultivating habits of kindness and patience. The students should be instructed in the organization and conduct of Sunday-schools; they should be trained in the preparation of the voluntary teachers by previous instruction; in the visitation of the absent children; in the management of the clothing and sick clubs and libraries attached to such schools. They should be accustomed to the performance of those parochial duties in which the schoolmaster may lighten the burden of the clergyman. For this purpose, they should learn to keep the accounts of the benefit club. They should instruct and manage the village choir, and should learn to play the organ.

While in attendance on the village school, it is peculiarly important that they should accompany the master in his visits to children detained at home by sickness, and should listen to the words of counsel and comfort which he may then administer; they should also attend him when his duty requires a visit to the parents of some refractory or indolent scholar, and should learn how to secure their aid in the correction of the faults of the child.

Before he leaves the training school, the student should have formed a distinct conception, from precept and practice, how his example, his instruction, and his works of charity and religion, ought to promote the Christian civilization of the community in which he labors.

Turn we again to the contrast of such a picture. Let us suppose a school in which this vigilance in the formation of character is deemed superfluous; or a principal, the guileless simplicity of whose character is not strengthened by the wisdom of experience. A fair outward show of order and industry, and great intellectual development, may, in either case, be consistent with the latent pregness of a rank corruption of manners, mining all beneath. Unless the searching intelligence of the principal is capable of discerning the dispositions of his charge, and anticipating their tendencies, he is unequal to the task of molding the minds of his pupils, by the power of a loftier character and a superior will. In that case, or when the principal deems such vigilance superfluous, and is content with the intellectual labors of his office, leaving the little republic, of which he is the head, to form its own manners, and to create its own standard of principle and action, the catastrophe of a deep ulcerous corruption is not likely to be long delayed.

In either case, it is easy to trace the progress of degeneracy. A school, in which the formation of character is not the chief aim of the masters, must abandon that all-important end to the republic of scholars. When these are selected from the educated and upper ranks of society, the school will derive its code of morals from that prevalent in such classes. When the pupils belong to a very humble class, their characters are liable, under such arrangements, to be compounded of the ignorance, coarseness, and vices of the lowest orders. One pupil, the victim of low vices, or of a vulgar coarseness of thought, escaping the eye of an unsuspicious principal, or unsought for by the vigilance which is expended on the intellectual progress of the school, may corrupt the private intercourse of the students with low buffoonery, profligate jests, and sneers at the self-denying zeal of the humble student; may gradually lead astray one after another of the pupils to clandestine habits, if not to the secret practice of vice. Under such circumstances, the counsels of the principal would gradually become subjects of ridicule. A conspiracy of direct insubordination would be formed. The influence of the superior would barely maintain a fair external appearance of order and respect.

Every master issuing from such a school would become the active agent of a degeneracy of manners, by which the humbler ranks of society would be infected.

The formation of the character is, therefore, the chief aim of a training school, and the principal should be a man of Christian earnestness, of intelligence, of experience, of knowledge of the world, and of the humblest simplicity and purity of manners.

Next to the formation of the character of the pupil is, in our estimation, the general development of his intelligence. The extent of his attainments, though within a certain range a necessary object of his training, should be subordinate to that mental cultivation, which confers the powers of self-education, and gives the greatest strength to his reflective faculties. On this account, among others, we attach importance to the methods of imparting knowledge pursued in the Normal School. While we have insured that the attainments of the students should be exact, by testing them with searching examinations, repeated at the close of every week, and reiterated lessons on all subjects in which any deficiency was discovered, nothing has been taught by rote. The memory has never been stored, without the exercise of the reason. Nothing has been learned which has not been understood. This very obvious course is too frequently lost sight of in the humbler branches of learning—principles being hidden in rules, defining only their most convenient application; or buried under a heap of facts, united by no intelligible link. To form the character, to develop the intelligence, and to store the mind with the requisite knowledge, these were the objects of the Normal School.

In the village school a new scene of labor developed itself, which has been in progress since the period of our last report, and has now nearly reached its term. If we attach pre-eminent importance to the formation of character as the object of the Normal School, a knowledge of the method of managing an elementary school, and of instructing a class in each branch of elementary knowledge, is the peculiar object of the model-school attached to any training institution. In its proper province as subordinate to the instruction and training in a Normal School, it is difficult to exaggerate the importance to a teacher, of a thorough familiarity with the theory and practice of organizing and conducting common schools. Without this, the most judicious labor in the Normal School may, so far as the future usefulness of the student as a schoolmaster is concerned, be literally wasted. It is possible to conceive that the character may be formed on the purest model; that the intelligence may have been kept in healthful activity; and that the requisite general and technical instruction may have been acquired, yet without the aptitude to teach; without skill acquired from precept and example; without the habits matured in the discipline of schools; without the methods in which the art of teaching is reduced to technical rules, and the matter of instruction arranged in the most convenient form for elementary scholars, the previous labor wants the link which unites it to its peculiar task. On the other hand, to select from the common drudgery of a handcraft, or from the humble, if not mean pursuits of a petty trade, a young man barely (if indeed at all) instructed in the humblest elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and to conceive that a few months' attendance on a model-school can make him acquainted with the theory of its organization, convert him into an adept in its methods, or even rivet upon his stubborn memory any significant part of the technical knowledge of which he has immediate need, is a mistake too shameful to be permitted to survive its universal failure.

When we speak of the necessity of a thorough acquaintance with methods of organizing and teaching in common schools, we mean to *exalt* the importance of previous training of the character, expansion of the intelligence, and sufficient technical instruction. Without this previous preparation, the instruction in the model-school is empirical, and the luckless wight would have had greater success in his handcraft, than he can hope to enjoy in his school.

For these reasons, among others, the attention of the students has especially of late been directed to the theory of the organization of schools, and to the acquirement of the art of teaching.

The *method of conveying instruction* is peculiarly important in an elementary school, because the scholars receive no learning and little judicious training at home, and are, therefore, dependent for their education on the very limited period of their attendance at school. On this account nothing superfluous should be taught, lest what is necessary be not attained. The want of a fit preparation of the mind of the scholar, and the brevity of his school life, are reasons for adopting the most certain and efficacious means of imparting knowledge, so that this short period may become as profitable as possible. The regularity of the child's attendance, the interest he takes in his learning, and his success, will be promoted by the adoption of means of instruction suited to the state of his faculties and the condition of society from which he is taken. If his progress be obstructed by the obscurity of his master's teaching, and by the absence of that tact which captivates the imagination of children, and rouses the activity of their minds, the scholar will become dull, listless, and untoward; will neglect his learning and his school, and degenerate into an obstinate dunce. The easiest transition in acquirement is in the order of simplicity from the known to the unknown, and it is indispensable to skillful teaching that the matter of instruction should be arranged in a synthetic order, so that all the elements may have to each other the relation of a progressive series from the most simple to the most complex. This arrangement of the matter of instruction requires a previous analysis, which can only be successfully accomplished by the devotion of much time. Such methods are only gradually brought to perfection by experience. The elementary schoolmaster, however highly instructed, can seldom be expected to possess either the necessary leisure or the peculiar analytical talent; and unless this work of arrangement be accomplished for him, he cannot hope, by the technical instruction of the Normal School, to acquire sufficient skill to invent a method by arranging the matter of instruction.

In order, therefore, that he may teach nothing superfluous; that he may convey his instruction in the most skillful manner, and in the order of simplicity, it is necessary that he should become acquainted with a *method* of communicating each branch of knowledge.

This is the more important, because individual teaching is impossible in a common school. Every form of organization, from the monitorial to the simultaneous, includes more or less of collective teaching. The characteristics of skillful collective teaching are the simplicity and precision with which the knowledge is communicated, and the logical arrangement of the matter of instruction. Diffuse, desultory, or unconnected lessons are a waste of time; they leave no permanent traces on the memory; they confuse the minds of children, instead of instructing them and strengthening their faculties.

Certain moral consequences also flow from the adoption of skillful methods of teaching. The relations of regard and respect which ought to exist between the master and his scholars are liable to disturbance, when, from his imperfect skill, their progress in learning is slow, their minds remain inactive, and their exertions are languid and unsuccessful. A school in which the master is inapt, and the scholars are dull, too frequently becomes the scene of a harsher discipline. Inattention must be prevented—indolence quickened—impatience restrained—insubordination and truancy corrected; yet all these are early consequences of the want of skill in the master. To enforce attention and industry, and to secure obedience and decorum, the languid and the listless are too often subjected to the stimulus of coercion, when the chief requisite is method and tact. The master supplies his own deficiencies with the rod; and what he cannot accomplish by skill, he endeavors to attain by the force of authority.

Such a result is not a proper subject of wonder, when the master has received no systematic instruction in method. To leave the student without the aid of *method*, is to subject him to the toil of analysis and invention, when he has neither the time nor the talent to analyze and invent.

The Report of 1843 dwells on the several methods previously noticed in the extracts already made from the Report of 1841, and concludes as follows:

These several *Methods* have now been tested by experience on the most public theater, and have become an important part of the instruction of masters of elementary schools. The Manuals in which they are embodied render their acquisition comparatively easy even to those who do not enjoy the advantage of receiving lessons in the art of teaching by them from adepts. The school of method will place within the reach of the schoolmasters of the metropolis the means of acquiring the requisite skill; and the body of schoolmasters, whom the Normal Schools will annually disseminate, will diffuse them through the country. Every school conducted with complete efficiency by a master trained in a Normal School, will become a model to neighboring schools which have not enjoyed similar advantages. On this account alone, it is important that no student from a Normal School should commence his labors in the country until he has acquired a mastery of the methods of teaching these necessary elements.

In a course of instruction extending over a year and a half, a student ought to spend three hours daily, during six or eight months, in the practice of the art of teaching in the village school. When the course of instruction is necessarily limited to one year, four months should be thus employed, and during the entire period of his training, instruction in method should form an element of the daily routine in the Normal School.

By such means alone can a rational conception of method be attained, and that skill in the art of conducting a school and instructing a class without which all the labors of the Normal School in imparting technical knowledge are wasted, because the student has no power of communicating it to others.

In the Report of 1847, the Inspector, Mr. Moseley, makes the following remarks:

There is one point of view in which we cannot but speak of the labors of this institution with unmingled satisfaction. It stands out honorably distinguished from all others as a place where THE METHODS OF ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION are recognized as legitimate objects of research, and where TEACHING IS STUDIED AS AN ART.

That shifting, dreamy state of the mind which is associated with mechanical pursuits, such as have usually been the previous pursuits of the students of training institutions, does not readily pass into a close and continuous application of the understanding, any more than, in respect to our bodily health, a state of constant physical exertion gives place quietly to a sedentary life. A laborer is not easily converted into a student. It is not to be done by putting a book before him. He may sit with that book before him for months, and yet never begin to *learn*.

Such a man requires to be roused from that mental apathy which has grown upon him by the disuse of his faculties, and to be taught the secret of his powers. This is best effected by the direct contact of his own mind with that of a vigorous teacher, and for this reason oral instruction is specially adapted to the business of a training school.

A system which limits itself to this expedient of instruction will probably, however, fail of some important results. The teacher must also be a student. Unless this be the case, the lessons he gives in his school will echo every day more faintly the instructions he received at the college. Each lesson should have had its preparation. However humble the subject, or the class of children to whom it is addressed, there is probably some information to be gathered from books which is applicable to it; and it is in the direction of such applications that lie the legitimate studies of the teacher—studies not less valuable in their influence upon his school than upon himself.

The labor of oral instruction is, however, so great, that to adopt it in respect to ever so small a number of students, supposes the union of several teachers; and thus is obtained that division of the subjects taught among the teachers which enables each *to confine his attention to a particular class of subjects*, and thereby himself to acquire not only that greater knowledge of these subjects, but of the *best means of teaching them*, which is essential to his success.

It is not only, however, because each teacher teaches *better*, that a favorable influence is to be attributed to the labors of various teachers in an institution like this, but because there is an awakening and stimulating power in the rude attacks made by a succession of vigorous teachers—each with a different subject, and an energy concentrated in it—on a sluggish understanding; and in the different impressions they leave upon it.

There are phases in every man's mind which adapt it to receive impressions from one teacher rather than another, as well as from one subject rather than from another. And thus, between one of a succession of teachers and some individual student, there may be established sympathies which no other could have awakened, and there may be commenced a process of instruction in some individual mind, which the united labors of all the rest could not have moved.

If any thing had been wanting to confirm in our minds the favorable opinion which has been earned for it among the friends of education, by the many admirable teachers it *has* sent out, the experience of our examination would have supplied it.

Fifty-four young men were assembled who, originally educated here, had for various periods of from one to seven years been in charge of elementary schools. An opportunity was afforded us of forming the personal acquaintance of these men, and each of them taught in our presence one of the classes of the village school.

The impression we received of them from these efforts was eminently favorable. Nor was this favorable opinion shaken by an examination of the papers written in answer to the questions we proposed to them. Although their course of regular instruction had in many cases long ceased, the knowledge they had acquired had not been lost. It was evident that their education had been of that kind which has a tendency to perfect itself, and that the process of instruction commenced here in their minds had gone on.

TRAINING COLLEGE

FOR

THE DIOCESE OF CHESTER, ENGLAND.

The following account of the Chester Diocesan Training College, England, is abridged from Reports by Rev. Henry Mosely, one of her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, to the Committee of Council on Education for 1845 and 1846. The Reports will be found in the "*Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education*" for 1844 and 1845.

The Chester Diocesan Training College was commenced by the Chester Diocesan Board of Education, in 1840. The College is situated on elevated ground, adjacent to the high road which leads from Chester to Park Gate, and is distant about one quarter of a mile from the north gate of the city, and a little less east, from the River Dee. It commands towards the west, an uninterrupted prospect of 12 or 14 miles, terminated by the hills of Denbighshire and Flintshire, and, from its upper windows, an equally extensive view eastward, over Cheshire. With its garden and grounds, it occupies five acres of land, one of which is freehold, held by deed of gift from the Dean and Chapter of Chester, and four acres (being pasture land) on lease, renewable every 21 years, and held under the same corporation. The property is conveyed in trust, for the purposes of the Institution, to the Chester Diocesan Board of Education, the Bishops of Chester, and the Deans of Chester and Manchester.

The material of the building is brickwork, with red sandstone facings. It has two principal fronts—the one towards the east extending on the line of the Park Gate-road; and the other towards the west, being that of the Principal's residence, and commanding a view of the Denbighshire hills. It is a structure of a grave and massive yet picturesque character, and of the Tudor style of architecture, to which its irregular outline is well adapted. In the adjustment of its proportions, in its decorations suitable to the material, and in the selection of its architectural forms, it presents a combination of great merit and of a very appropriate character. The building was erected in the years 1841 and 1842, and prepared for the reception of the students at an expense of about £10,752, raised by donations in the diocese, aided by a grant of £2500 from your Lordships. A model school-room has since been added to it,—additional accommodation provided for 20 students,—and your Lordships have contributed a further sum of £1200 towards those objects. The design of the Institution unites, with the training of schoolmasters, the instruction of a commercial school,—the pupils of which are received as boarders—and the instruction of an elementary school. Provision is made within the walls for these several departments.

The general management is vested in a Committee of the Chester Diocesan Board of Education, composed of 21 members.

The following is an official statement of the objects of the Institution, and of the conditions upon which students are received into it:

The object intended to be promoted by this Institution is to prepare, as far as a correctly religious, moral, and scientific training can do it, a supply of Masters, for the parochial-church schools in the diocese of Chester.

The Institution is under the presidency of the Lord Bishop of the Diocese, and has the sanction of the very Reverend the Deans, and the Reverend the Chapters of Chester and Manchester. The office of Principal is vested in the Reverend Arthur Rigg, M.A. of Christ's College, Cambridge. The Vice-Principal is also a graduate of that university.

The times for the admission of students are two in the course of each year—viz., in January and in July.

Attention is directed to the following extracts from the Resolutions of the Training College Committee.

Objects of the Institution.—The Chester Diocesan Training College consists of an elementary school for the children of the poor, to be regarded as a model school.

A school for the education of Masters of elementary schools for the children of the poor, to be regarded as a normal school.

As subsidiary to these objects, a middle school for the education of the children from the middle classes.

Scheme of Instruction.—"That subject to such alterations as the Training School Committee may from time to time sanction, the following be the *general* Scheme of Instruction in the Training School:

RELIGION.

Holy Scriptures.
Evidences of Christianity.
Church Catechism.
Daily and Occasional Services of Liturgy
XXXIX. Articles.
Church History.
History of the Reformation.

GENERAL.

English Grammar and Reading.
Geography and History.
Writing and Arithmetic.
Book-keeping.
Theory and Practice of Teaching
Psalmody.

Instruction may also be given, at the discretion of the Principal, with reference to the capacity of the pupil and the situation for which he is designed, in

The Latin and Greek Languages,
Natural Philosophy,
Trigonometry,
Navigation,
Linear Drawing,
Mapping,
The French Language,
Elements of Geometry and Algebra,

subject to the approval of the Training School Committee."

Number of Pupils. Exhibitioners—"That the number of pupils training as masters, until the Board shall otherwise determine, be limited to fifty—who shall pay £25 per annum for their board and instruction (all payments being made quarterly in advance). That of these a number not exceeding half shall receive exhibitions of £12 10s per annum each, to be appointed according to merit, and that the exhibition be held for a period not longer than three years, subject nevertheless to forfeiture, if the individual appointed do not, in the opinion of the Committee, by assiduity and good conduct continue to merit it."

Caution Money.—"That each person, before his name be entered as a candidate for admission, pay one pound; this sum to be returned if he come into residence;—to be forfeited for the use of the Library Fund if he do not."

Students to enter into a Bond.—"That every pupil training for a master, or other person on his behalf, be required to enter into a legal engagement, binding him to the following effect, viz.:—

"That in case he shall decline, when so required by the Principal, to undertake the duties of a schoolmaster or assistant, within one year after he has left the establishment, and also in case at any period not exceeding four years from his undertaking such duties, he shall decline to continue the same, the Diocesan Board, Training College, Committee, or any one acting by their authority, shall with due regard to his health, services and other circumstances, have power to require of him the payment of any sum not exceeding twice the amount which shall have been paid to him or applied to his benefit as such student."

Times of Admission.—"That pupils for training be admitted into the Establishment half-yearly, on certain days to be fixed by the Committee, of which due notice shall be given by the Principal."

Age of Candidates.—"That, except in special cases, when the examiners shall otherwise determine, no pupil be admitted before the age of fifteen, nor be recommended as a schoolmaster before the age of eighteen, having studied at least one year in the Institution; and that no pupil remain for a longer period than five years. And that no person be eligible as a pupil to the Training School, who, from any bodily infirmity, is disqualified from efficiently discharging the duties of a schoolmaster."

Certificate of Baptism.—"That every pupil, on becoming a candidate for admission into the Training School, be required to produce a certificate or sufficient testimonial of baptism, and a certificate from the minister of the parish in which he has resided, according to the following form:

> "I, A. B., Incumbent or Curate of , do hereby certify that C. D. has resided in this Parish for the space of , and that I believe him to be qualified in character and attainments to become a Candidate for admission into the Training College at Chester."

Examinations of Candidates.—"That candidates for admission be subjected to an examination to be conducted by the Principal, the Chancellor of the Diocese, the Canon in residence at Chester, and one of the elected masters of higher schools. That each candidate be required to read and spell correctly—to write a good plain hand—to be well versed in the first four rules of arithmetic—to possess a general knowledge of the Old and New Testament—and to be able to repeat accurately the Church Catechism."

Every candidate for admission is required to answer the following questions in writing, space being left for his answers on a printed copy of them which is placed before him:—

What is your age?
Have you been vaccinated?
Are you *now* and *usually* in a good state of health?
Are you without any bodily defect?
Where did you receive your education?
What is your present situation in life—why leaving it—and what is the average of your weekly earnings?
Have you been accustomed to teach either in a day or Sunday school—if so, where and for what period of time?
Have you any knowledge of *music*, *singing*, or *drawing*?

Who becomes responsible for your quarter's payment in advance?

Name, ——————————
Trade or calling, ——————————
Address, ——————————

Date, Sign with your own name and address.

Every candidate for admission is moreover required to sign the following declaration:

"I hereby declare that my object in entering the Chester Diocesan Training College is to qualify myself for a schoolmaster, and that I will not take any situation, either as a schoolmaster or otherwise, without the consent of the Board, and repayment of the money expended on my preparatory Education, and that, when required, I will accept the office of schoolmaster under and in connexion with the Diocesan Board of Education."

Fifteen exhibitions, each of £12 10s annually, have been founded by the Diocesan Board, and one of the same amount by W. E. Gladstone, Esq., M.P. The whole charge upon the funds of the Institution, in respect to exhibitions, amounts therefore to £187 10s.

The National Society has founded a number of exhibitions to meet in part, the expenses of the residence of twenty masters, over twenty-one years of age, for a period not less than three and not more than eight months. The number of students at the period of my first inspection was 56, of whom 14 were schoolmasters resident, temporarily, upon the exhibitions of the National Society. There average age was 27 years. The ages of the students of the class permanently resident in the Institution varied at the period of my first inspection from 17 to 37 years, their mean age being 25 years.

The previous occupations of 21 of the regular students, being one-half of the whole number, had been of a mechanical character, connected for the most part with the manufacturers of the district; they had, in point of fact, been, under one form or another, workmen. Of the remainder, 8 had been employed in schools, and the rest had for the most part been warehousemen or clerks.

I have been thus particular in recording the previous occupations of these young men, from an impression that, in estimating the probable resources of such an institution, and the results attainable from it, it is desirable to know who are likely to frequent it.

I find that 8 are supported in the Institution at their own charge, 18 at the cost of their parents or other relations, and 9 by private patrons—chiefly benevolent clergymen. Of these, 14 are aided by exhibitions of the Diocesan Board. The previous instruction of the greater number was commenced in National Schools. Their school-days, however, had terminated at a very early period of life, and what they knew had chiefly been acquired during the intervals of daily labor. Attainments, however meagre, made under such circumstances, are evidences of a superior character—they are the fruits of self-dedication and self-sacrifice for the attainment of an important and a laudable object, and they bear testimony to a thirst for knowledge already created, and a habit of self-instruction already formed.

These are qualifications of no mean value for the career on which they enter at the Training College. On the other hand, it is to be borne in mind that there is nothing in mechanical occupations, however favorable in some cases to reflection, to exercise a prompt and facile intelligence, or cultivate a verbal memory and an opulent diction. With few exceptions they had been accustomed to teach in Sunday-schools, and the extensive Scriptural knowledge of which my examination supplied me with the evidence, was probably acquired in this occupation. Where their secular knowledge on admission extended beyond reading, writing, and arithmetic, it included in seven or eight cases, a little Latin, and in five, the first principles of algebra and geometry. The dialect and pronounciation of many of them I found to be strongly provincial, and the articulation in reading imperfect.

Their arithmetical knowledge on their admission, often includes all the rules usually taught in books on arithmetic; but it is a knowledge limited to the application of the rule mechanically, with a greater or less amount of accuracy and facility; and does not include any intelligence of the principles of calculation on which it is founded, much less of the best means of bringing the minds of children to the intelligence of them.

The students rise at 5 o'clock in the summer and at a ½ before 7, in the winter.* They make their own beds; and in summer devote the interval between ½ past 5 and 7, to Scriptural instruction, and to the preparation of lessons for the next succeeding day. Prayers are read at 7 o'clock, and at a ½ past 7 they breakfast. The interval from a ¼ before 8 to a ½ past 8 is devoted to industrial occupations, carried on for the most part in the open air, or (the weather being unfavorable) to psalmody. At ½ past 8 their morning studies commence, and are continued to ½ past 11. The interval between ½ past 11 and ½ after 12 they again devote to industrial pursuits, the weather permitting. They dine at 1 o'clock, and resume their studies at 2. The interval from 5 to ½ past 7 is allowed them for private reading and exercise, and it is in this interval that they take their evening meal. Their evening studies begin at ½ past 7, and are continued until a ½ past 8.

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*Any number, not less than four, who come down to pursue their studies at an earlier hour than this in the winter are allowed to light the gas in the class rooms.

At ½ past 8 evening prayers are read, the service being choral and accompanied by the organ, and at 9 they retire to rest. In the dormitories the gas-lights burn for three-quarters of an hour after they have retired to rest, a period which they have the opportunity of devoting to religious reading and to their devotions.

The following is a list of the officers of the Institution:

Rev. ARTHUR RIGG, M.A., Christ College, Cambridge, *Principal.*
Rev. RICHARD WALL, B.A., St. John's College, Cambridge, *Vice-Principal.*
Mr. HENRY BEAUMONT, *Master in the Commercial School.*
*Mr. RICHARD GRIFFIES, *Master in the Commercial School.*
*Mr. LAWRENCE W. RILEY, *Master of the Model School.*

The teachers of the commercial school occasionally assist in the instruction of the students of the training school. No other masters are employed than those above enumerated, all of whom are resident within the walls of the Institution.

The Principal is assisted in the general supervision of the Institution, by one of the students called the *scholar*, selected from among the exhibitioners, and changed every week according to a cycle fixed at the commencement of each half year. His duties are as follows:—

Duties of the Scholar.

1. To inspect the bed-rooms and be responsible for their order. To open all windows upstairs.
2. To go to the post-office at 9 o'clock A.M. and leave the order-book in the usual place.
3. To ring the bell at all the doors at the appointed hours.
4. To have a general care over all the in-door property of the building.
5. To keep the library in order, and to be responsible for class-books, and to prepare the books for each lesson.
6. To receive all letters for post at ½ to 8 P.M.
7. To receive all articles for the tailor and shoemaker before 5 o'clock P.M. on Thursday.
8. To take the board containing the scheme of work into the study on Thursday evening.
9. To put up the calender for the week on the Saturday previous; also to put up a copy of the psalm-tune for Sunday on the Monday evening previous.
10. For neglect or breach of these rules the scholar may be punished at the discretion of the Principal.

Another student, selected according to a weekly cycle from among those who will leave the Institution at the following vacation, is appointed under the designation of an "orderly," specially to assist the Principal in matters connected with the discipline of the Institution and the industrial occupations of the students. His duties are as follows:

Duties of Orderly.

1. Not to allow any student to talk or make a noise before prayers (morning) and at meals.
2. To see that shoes are on at least 5 minutes before prayers, Thursday and Sunday excepted.
3. To order and arrange for prayers.
4. To bolt the yard-doors when the bell has rung for each meal.
5. To have the control, direction, &c., of the manner in which work is to be done; the employment of any who are idle; and the general care, &c., of tools, &c., and all the out-door property of the building.
6. To see that the students are seated 10 minutes after the bell has rung in the morning and 2 in the afternoon.
7. To attend to order in classes at lessons both as regards persons and places.
8. The orderly to provide a towel every Saturday night for the use of the students in the yard.
9. For neglect or breach of these rules the orderly may be punished at the discretion of the Principal.

The period devoted every week to each subject of instruction will be found specified in the following table:

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* These were recently students in the Institution.

Time devoted in the course of the Week to each subject of Instruction.

	H.	M.
Scriptural knowledge	8	0
Evidences of Christianity	1	0
Church History	1	20
English Grammar	3	30
English History	1	0
English literature (including themes and writing from memory, &c.)	2	40
Educational essays, together with lectures, reading, and praxes on National School teaching	12	0
Arithmetic	5	10
Algebra	1	0
Euclid	1	0
Mensuration	1	0
Natural and Experimental Philosophy	0	40
Lecture (subject not prescribed)	1	0
Writing	1	40
Geography	2	0
Vocal Music	3	0
Linear Drawing	2	0
Preparation for lessons	4	30
Leisure	15	0

During the last six months of the residence of each student, he practices the art of teaching in the model-school; a week at a time being set apart for that occupation, according to a cycle prepared by the Principal, which brings back the teaching week of each, with an interval of about three weeks during the first quarter, and oftener if necessary during the last.

The Institution provides all the books used by the students, whose price exceeds 3s, and the students contribute each 2s quarterly towards the purchase of them.

On one of the days of my inspection, in the month of May, I found the students thus employed:—

7	were engaged in	carpentry.
5	“	cabinet-making.
2	“	brass-working and soldering.
*8	“	book-binding
2	“	painting.
2	“	graining.
2	“	turning in wood.
2	“	“ in metal.
1	“	stone-cutting.
4	“	lithographing.
2	“	filing and chipping.
2	“	practical chemistry.
2	“	varnishing and map-mounting.
2	“	lithographical drawing.
15	“	gardening, excavating, and transporting earth.

All the rough ground about the building has been levelled and brought into cultivation by them; the principal class-rooms painted in imitation of oak and excellently grained; they have made several articles of furniture and various school apparatus; and many of the books in the school have been bound by them.

It is not, however, with reference to the pecuniary value of the labors of the students that the Principal attaches importance to them, but with a view to their healthful character and their moral influence. They pursue their studies with the more energy, habits of indolence not having been allowed to grow upon them in their hours of relaxation, and their bodies being invigorated by moderate exercise; and, inactivity being banished from the Institution, a thousand evils engendered of it are held in abeyance. When first admitted, they do not understand why bodily labor is required of them, and are desirous to devote all their time to reading; they soon, however, acquiesce, and take a pleasure in it.

By employing each student as far as possible in the pursuit to which he has been accustomed, his active co-operation is assured, because it is easy to him, and there is a pleasure associated with the exercise of his skill in it; and he becomes, moreover, in respect to this pursuit, an instructor to others—in this way, not less than by the marketable value of the results of his labor, contributing to the welfare of the Institution.

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* All the students learn book-binding.

The industrial occupations of the students receive the constant and active supervision of the Principal. He takes a lively interest in the labors of each—points out the scientific bearings of the craft he is exercising, sometimes suggests to him an improved manipulation of it, and combines and directs the whole to proper objects and to useful results. At the time of my second visit he had thus concentrated all the mechanical power of the Institution on the labors of the chapel.

Nothing could be more lively and interesting than the scene presented by the grounds and workshops during the intervals of study. In one place the foundations of the structure were being dug out; in another the stone was quarried. In the workshops I found carpenters, turners, carvers in oak, and blacksmiths, plying their several trades; and, in a shed, a group of stone-cutters carving with great success, the arch-mouldings, mullions, and lights of a decorated window, under the direction of one of their number, to whom they were indebted for their knowledge of the art. A lively co-operation and a cheerful activity were everywhere apparent, and an object was obviously in the view of all, which ennobled their toil.

The expense of medical attendance is provided for, by the students themselves, who have a sick-club, to which each contributes 2s 6d every half-year. This payment is found sufficient, very little sickness having prevailed.

The students wear a collegiate dress, consisting of a cap and gown like those worn in the Universities. It is the object of this regulation to preserve a uniformity of appearance amongst them whilst they are within the bounds of the Institution, and to distinguish them when without.

The administration of the entire household department is intrusted to the steward, who provides the food and washing of the students, the board and wages of domestic servants, the house-linen, knives and forks, earthenware, kitchen utensils, &c., at a fixed charge in respect to each student, dependent for its amount on the number in residence. The Principal does not otherwise interfere with his department than in the exercise of an active and a constant supervision over it.

A dietary has been prescribed, but it has been found wholly unnecessary to enforce it. An entire separation between the rooms occupied by the students and the household department has been carefully provided for in the construction of the building, and is strictly and effectually enforced.

The Principal is charged with the administration of the discipline. It is enforced by impositions consequent on a breach of the rules.* The power of suspension rests with the Principal; of expulsion with the Committee of Management.

A permanent record of all punishments is kept in a book provided for that purpose by the Scholar.

The students who have left the Institution are accustomed to correspond with the Principal, and are invited at Christmas to dine with him. He is desirous, if it were practicable, to pay an annual visit to them. Inquiries are moreover made officially by the honorary secretary, from time to time, as to the way in which their duties are discharged, and the welfare of their schools.

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* The following may be taken as an example of these impositions. Five lines are required to be written out for every minute that a student is late in the morning. No imposition had been enforced, except for this offence, between Christmas, 1843, and the period of my inspection in May, 1844.

Commercial and Agricultural School.

The system of education in the commercial and agricultural school comprises the following subjects:—

English Composition.
Writing and Arithmetic.
Book-keeping.
Mensuration.
Surveying and Engineering.
Ancient and Modern History.
Geography, Drawing and Music.
The Elements of Natural Philosophy.
Chemistry as applied to Agriculture, Horticulture, and the Arts.
Latin and Greek.
French and German.

The terms, including board, lodging, and education, are,—for pupils above 12 years of age, £35 per annum; for pupils under 12 years of age, £30 per annum. There are no extra charges. An entrance fee of £1 is required, and appropriated to the library and museum.

Pupils are admitted to the commercial school between the ages of 8 and 15 years.

The utmost attention is paid to their health and comfort, the domestic arrangements being under the superintendence of an experienced matron. Each has a separate room and bed. There are two vacations in the year; that in the summer for five weeks, that in the winter for four weeks.

Model School.

The appointment of Master of the model-school, is filled up from among the best qualified of the students of the College. He resides within the walls of the Institution, but is not charged with any other duties than those connected with his school. He is assisted in the instruction of the children by the students who are in the last six months of their residence (according to a scheme adverted to in a preceding part of this Report), and by monitors.

The children come, for the most part, from the neighboring city, their parents being commonly laborers of a superior class, or small shopkeepers. Having been present on one of the days of admission, which come round monthly, I can bear testimony to the earnest desire shown by the parents to secure for their children the superior instruction offered by the school. There were, at that time, between 20 and 30 applicants more than could be admitted, and the names of many of these had already been for some months on the list of candidates.

The following are the rules of the school. The scale of payment will be remarked as a novel feature in them. It has been framed in the hope of keeping the children longer at school, by offering the premium of a reduction of the fee dependent upon the child's standing, and has been found to work well.

Rules of Model National School in the Training College, Chester.

If these Rules are not obeyed, the Master cannot allow Children to remain at the School.

1. Boys who are above seven years of age and of good health may be brought to the school.

2. Each boy must be *in* the school at *nine* o'clock in the morning, and at *two* o'clock in the afternoon, unless otherwise ordered by the Master.

3. The children themselves, and their clothes, must be *quite clean*, their *hair cut short*, and in every way they must be as neat as the parents or friends can make them.

4. The 20 boys who have been longest in the school are free.

The next 20 boys who have been longest in the school must each pay - - - 1d per week.
The third 20 boys who have been longest in the school must each pay - - - 2d "
And the rest of the children - - - 3d "

5. On each Monday morning the pence for that week are to be brought, whether the child be at school or not.

6. Books, slates, paper, pens, ink, and pencils, &c., are found for the children without cost to the parents.

7. Any injury which may be done to books, &c., by a child, must be made good by his parents or friends.

8. If a boy be wanted at home, the master's leave must be asked *beforehand* by a parent or grown-up friend.

9. When children are late, or absent without the master's leave, a note will be sent requiring a parent or grown-up friend to come to the school to tell why the child was late or absent; and if it should ever be the case that, at different times during one half-year, *three* such notes have been sent about the same boy, he will on the next like offence be subject to degradation on the payment list, or dismissal from the school.

10. Care will be taken that children are not ill-treated while in school. Should there be any just ground of complaint, the parent must speak to the Principal of the College, without going to the school-room.

11. Since more is required than the labors of a schoolmaster in school, in order "that children may be virtuously brought up to lead a godly and a Christian life," the parents or friends are desired, as they love the welfare of their children, to promote their education in every possible manner,—confirming at home, both by precept and example, those lessons of piety and morality, order and industry, the teaching of which are main objects of this Institution.

In bringing under your Lordship's notice the conclusions to which I have been led by my inspection of this Institution, I cannot disguise from myself that, placed as it is in the immediate neighborhood of the vast population of Manchester and Liverpool, and destined to provide for the educational wants of a diocese, including within its limits the greatest manufacturing districts of the kingdom—districts than which no others are more remarkable for a dearth of elementary education,* and for the evils engendered of popular ignorance—it yields to no other similar institution in interest or importance. Neither does it yield to any other in the ad-

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* The following is an abstract of the statistical returns made by the deaneries of the diocese of Chester to the Diocesan Board of Education and published in its Report for 1842:—

BOARD.	Population.	Number of Children for whom accommodation is provided.	Number of Children in Attendance.	Proportion per Cent. to the Population of those for whom accommodation is provided.	Proportion per Cent. to the Population of those in Daily Attendance.
Chester - -	90,341	15,178	4,300	16[illegible]	4[illegible]
Nantwich -	34,237	4,559	1.190	13[illegible]	3[illegible]
Macclesfield -	134,702	15,987	3,350	9[illegible]	1[illegible]
Middlewich -	44,962	6,844	1,556	15	3[illegible]
Frodsham -	73,859	9,597	2,957	12[illegible]	4
Manchester -	550,178	51,311	10 043	9[illegible]	1[illegible]
Bolton - -	149,108	15.847	2,695	10[illegible]	1[illegible]
Liverpool -	266.135	24,038	10,229	8[illegible]	3[illegible]
Wigan - -	141,858	18,234	4.147	12[illegible]	2[illegible]
Preston - -	72.668	15,517	3,813	21[illegible]	5[illegible]
Lancaster -	34,033	6,657	1,591	19[illegible]	4[illegible]
Blackburn -	156,793	25,125	4,140	18[illegible]	2[illegible]
Chorley - -	56,815	8,345	1,759	14[illegible]	3
Ulverston -	26,760	5,207	1,621	20[illegible]	6[illegible]
Whitehaven -	18,809	6,890	1,718	36[illegible]	9[illegible]
Kendal - -	33,833	7,149	1,581	21[illegible]	4[illegible]
Whole Diocese.	1,884,062	236,475	56,609	12[illegible]	3

vantages of its situation, the imposing character and the magnitude of its structure, and the scale of its operations. It is the only building which has yet been erected expressly for the purposes of a training college, and in the adaptation of its plan internally for the uses of such a structure, not less than in the appropriate character of its external architecture, it may serve as a model for every other.

The direct influence of the College on the education of the district, is that which it exercises through the schoolmasters whom it sends out. What this influence is likely to become, may be judged of from the fact that, of the 37 masters who had been so sent out up to February 1844, it has been ascertained in respect to 30, that the number of children in attendance upon their schools had increased in 13 months from 1428 to 2469: so that if every schoolmaster in the diocese could be replaced by one from this college, the number of children under instruction in it, would according to this rate of increase, double itself in little more than a year. The Bishop of Chester, who takes a deep interest in the success of the College, and extends to it a paternal care, thus speaks of it in his charge to the clergy of the diocese, at the triennial visitation of 1844:

"It may be objected, that education is no new thing; that National schools have existed for a whole generation; and that we have no right to look for a result in future which has not been produced already.

"We have learnt, however, from past experience, that schools may exist, with very little of real education: very little of that culture which brings the mind into a new state, and prepares it for impressions of good which may be strong enough to resist temptation, and maintain a course of righteousness, sobriety, and godliness. That our schools have been useful as far as they have hitherto proceeded, it would be unreasonable to doubt; that they are capable of becoming far more useful, it is impossible to deny. I believe that we have taken the right step, in applying ourselves to the education of masters as preparatory to the education of children. And I look to the Training College, now happily established at Chester, and able to send forth its 30 masters annually, to supply the schools now building, and demanded by our increasing population, as one of the bright stars in our present prospect: one of the premises on which I found my hopeful calculations, for the people themselves readily appreciate the nature of the education offered them. After all, their indifference to education has hitherto been the chief cause of their want of education. Many of our national schools have languished for lack of scholars, in the midst of an illiterate population. When once it is perceived that schools are really telling upon the habits of the scholars—that the children through the effect of moral discipline are becoming orderly, obedient, and intelligent—the school fills as naturally as water rises in the channel when the spring receives a fresh supply. The 30 masters who first left our Training College found in their respective schools an aggregate of 1400 scholars. By the close of the first year the 1400 had swelled to 2400."

It is not only by means of the schoolmasters educated within its walls that the Training College exercises an influence on the surrounding district, but indirectly also, by the interest which it adds to the subject of education among the clergy of the diocese—by the educational topics which come through its means under their discussion—and the new methods of instruction which it brings to their knowledge. The imposing character of its structure, also—the commanding scale of its operations, and the sanction which the Bishop of the diocese lends to it, are not probably without their influence upon the springs of public opinion, or their practical bearing upon the interests of elementary education; tending as they do to raise the character of the educator in the estimation not less of the lower than of the upper classes of society, and to awaken the public sympathies in his behalf.

Nothing is more remarkable than the order and decorum which pervades the College, not less during the hours of relaxation than those of study. A duty appears to be prescribed for every moment, and every moment to find its active and useful employment.

Entire silence prevails throughout the building during the hours of study; the industrial pursuits of the students are characterized by the most perfect decorum; a routine is prescribed which regulates the order in which they assemble at prayers, and retire noiselessly to rest. All bespeaks a system rigidly enforced, and a high state of discipline.

In a preceding part of this Report, I have spoken of the class of society from which the students are for the most part taken, and the circumstances under which they are supported in the Institution. From the laborious character of an elementary schoolmaster's life and its privations, it is improbable that many persons would seek it, whose friends were in a position to pay for them an annual premium of £25, unless for some reason or other, they be disqualified for pursuing with success other avocations in life.

In so far as the self-supporting character which is sought for this Institution, and for others of the same class, is realized by the contributions of the relatives of the students themselves; its tendency is, therefore, to lower the general standard of ability and qualification for the office of schoolmaster; affording facilities for introducing to that office persons unsuited to the discharge of its duties. For it is to be borne in mind, that precisely those qualities of mental and bodily activity, judgment, enterprise, and perseverance, which lead to advancement in every other pursuit in life, are necessary to the elementary schoolmaster, and that the man is disqualified for that office who is unfit for any other.

In recording my impression of the actual attainments of the students at the period of inspection, I must in the first place bear testimony to a remarkable disparity apparent not less in their acquired knowledge, than in their natural abilities and adaptation of character and manners to the office they seek—a disparity which dates from the period of their admission. I have found amongst them men of powerful understanding and (speaking relatively) of cultivated minds; and others whose limited attainments, made under circumstances of extraordinary difficulty and discouragement, have borne testimony to much natural intelligence, a persevering character, and formed habits of study.* There are, however, others who appear scarcely to possess the ability or the industry requisite to supply—as to the commonest elements of knowledge—the deficiencies of a neglected education. It is too much to expect of the Institution, that, in the short period of their residence, it† should give to the latter class that apt‡ intelligence, that power of exposition, and those resources of method and simplification which unite to form the accomplished educator. It is enough that it bring these men up to the standard of the existing masters of National schools—that it should raise them above it is not to be hoped.

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* I find the following recorded among my notes of a private interview with one of the students of the College. I insert it here in illustration of the above remark :—

"——— was a cotton spinner; is an intelligent person; possesses great Scriptural knowledge, much general information in literature, and some acquaintance with algebra and geometry. Taught himself these things while spinning; having a book fixed up and reading in the interval of the return of the jenny. Afterwards he availed himself of the mutual instruction classes established at the place of his residence by the clergymen. He came to the Institution at his own expense for the first three quarters—his maintenance for three other quarters was provided by subscription." Exhibitions covering the whole expenses of residence in the College, and thrown, in some degree, open to competition, would probably secure for the interests of education many men of a similar character.

† The meantime of the residence of a student appears to be about one year and a half.

‡ In no respect are the deficiencies of these young men more apparent on their first entrance to the Institution than in the lack of a ready intelligence of those common elements of knowledge which are placed before them in their simplest forms. They seem to have little or no power of closely applying their thoughts, or of fixed attention; and it is long before they are in a state to profit by study, or by oral instruction. Their first effort is to shake off this sluggish habit of

Whilst the addition of men of this class to the number of elementary schoolmasters is not the legitimate function of a training-institution, and can contribute nothing to the interests of that cause which it is established to promote, it cannot fail to disappoint the hopes of these persons themselves. The standard of elementary education is rising so rapidly, and the number of efficient educators so fast increasing, that already those of inferior skill, find great difficulty in obtaining employment.

Their knowledge of geography includes many of the simpler elements of that science known as physical geography, which treats of the general conformation of the earth's surface in connexion with the climates of different regions, their vegetable and animal productions, and the races of men who inhabit them. Viewed in this light, geography is a science which may, in the hands of a skilful instructor, be made the vehicle of much general knowledge of that kind which is most likely to awaken in the minds of children a curiosity to know more, and cultivate a habit of self-instruction, and he will not fail to avail himself of it, to bring the resources of his lending library to the aid of his lessons, and thus to establish in the child's mind a link between the mechanical ability to read and *a pleasure* derivable from reading.

It is a novel feature of the Institution that it includes natural history in its course of instruction. I look forward with great interest to the progress of this branch of knowledge, than which none is more humanizing in its influence upon' the mind, or more healthful in the pursuit. The scene of a village-schoolmaster's life appears well adapted for the study of it, and followed, as it were, in the constant and manifest presence of Divine wisdom and goodness, it is eminently of a devotional tendency. It is to the able and well-directed labors of the Vice-Principal that the Institution owes those two characteristic and distinguished features of its course of instruction to which I have last adverted.

The science of mechanics is taught with much care, and particularly that simple form of it which treats of the WORK of mechanical agents. It has been introduced successfully into their schools by some of the students who have left the College. By a manufacturing population it cannot fail to be appreciated, admitting as it does of a useful application to their daily pursuits, and possessing a marketable value. It is a characteristic of elementary education such as this, that being allied to that which is to form the future occupation of the life of the child, it will not be cast away with his school-books, but when he becomes a man will be suggested again to his mind by things constantly occurring under his observation. Some scattered rays of knowledge being thus made to fall on the scene of his daily toil, his craft will assume something of the character of a science, and he will rise in the scale of intelligent beings by the mechanical exercise of his calling.

Like St. Mark's College, the Chester Diocesan Training College has grown up under the hands of its Principal. It has been framed from its commencement upon his views, and has received in many respects an impression from his character. This Report would be incomplete did it not bear testimony to his many and admirable qualifications for the office in-

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mind; and much of the valuable time allotted to them in the Institution is often expended before that effort is successful. Thus their progress during the latter part of their career is far greater than at first, and they sometimes leave when the real education of their minds is but just beginning.

trusted to him; and I cannot but look upon it as an event of no little importance to the interests of education, that his services have been secured in its cause.

The following passages are taken from the Report of Mr. Moseley, for 1845:

According to the census of 1841, the diocese of Chester contained, in that year, in the counties of Chester and Lancaster, a population of 2,062,-364, of which number 236,126 were males, and 234,929 females, *between the ages of 5 and 15, or 3 and 13*,—that is of an age to go to school.

Admitting that each adult teacher is capable of instructing 60 children, 7,850 such teachers would be required for the instruction of the children of these two counties. In which number—supposing none of them to be less than 25 years of age, and to become incapacitated for their duties at 65—117 will die annually, and 105 will be superannuated. So that from these two causes 222 vacancies will occur annually.

Assuming that 7 per cent. of this number are private teachers, there will remain 206 vacancies to be provided for among the teachers of public elementary schools, *i. e.*, 103 masters, and the same number of mistresses.

My experience in the inspection of training colleges leads me to the conclusion that the persons who seek them are not generally possessed of such previous instruction as would render a period of less than two years adequate to qualify them for the office of the elementary schoolmaster.

The training schools for masters in this diocese alone should, therefore, with reference to a really efficient state of the elementary education of the country, give instruction constantly to 206 students.

The present number of students in the Chester Diocesan College, is 40. It affords accommodation for 100. The part of it otherwise unoccupied, giving space to a commercial school, which at present consists of 30 boys.

The task of instructing the senior students devolves entirely upon the Principal and the Vice-principal; they are, however, assisted in their labors in the commercial and model schools by two of the students, whose course of instruction has been completed. This constitutes the entire staff of officers.

The fee for admission is 25*l.* annually; 16 exhibitions of 12*l.* 10*s.* each, however, reduce the fee, in respect to the like number of students, by one-half.

Seven hours a day are devoted to study in the class-rooms, 1½ hours to industrial pursuits, 2½ hours in winter, and 4 in summer, to private study and exercise.

The subjects of instruction, include Religious knowledge, English literature, Science, and the Art of teaching. Ten hours and one-third in each week, are devoted to the first, 21 hours to the second, 9 hours to the third, and 12 hours to the fourth. The students occupy 4½ hours in the preparation of lessons, and they have, every week, 15 hours' leisure.

The rest of their time is given to industrial occupations. These constitute an integral part of the course of instruction, received as systematically as any other, and under a greater variety of forms, and with more success than in any similar institution with which I am acquainted.

Nothing can be more animated and interesting than the scene which presents itself to the stranger who visits the institution during the hours when these occupations are going on.

Every student is seen plying some useful handicraft—either that which was the means of his previous livelihood, or one taken up since he has been in the institution—and wherever the eye rests, some new form of useful instruction in the mechanical arts suggests itself to the mind.*

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* On the day of my inspection I found the students thus distributed:—There were 5 carpenters, 2 turners in wood, 4 in iron, 2 painters, 2 blacksmiths, 3 glass-stainers, 4 lithographers, 3 carvers, 6 bookbinders, 2 students were varnishing maps, 1 was working a circular saw, 6 were occupied in excavating and transport of earth, and there was 1 gardener.

There can be no doubt of the admirable adaptation of a system like this to the education of masters for Industrial Schools; and the question how far it may be practicable and expedient to maintain such schools is pressed more and more, every day, upon the attention of the friends of the laboring classes, by the encroachments which labor is making upon that part of a poor child's life, which has hitherto been left for its education. Any plan would be likely to receive the confidence of the poor, combining instruction in useful learning, with some employment, which, whilst it served, by a trifling remuneration, to diminish the sacrifice they make in not sending their children to work, would be an obvious preparation for the life of labor in reserve for them.

It is not, perhaps, without a show of reason, that they are accustomed to fear, lest by too long a continuance at school, and by the influence of too much book learning, their children should be led to shrink from that self-denial of bodily toil, and should fail of those habits of steady industry, which are proper to their state of life. To talk to them of the moral advantages of instruction, of the elevating and ennobling tendencies of knowledge, of the social virtues which follow in its train, and of its influence in the formation of religious character, and, through that character, upon the future and eternal welfare of a responsible being, is to seek to impress their minds with truths of which, alas, they have no experience. Engaged themselves in a perpetual struggle with the physical difficulties of existence—too often increased by their own improvidence—when they look to the future welfare of their children, they have no other thought present to their minds than the remuneration of their labor. And, after all, if we would serve them effectually, and with that view, if we would secure their active concurrence in our efforts, we must, in some degree, meet their own views as to what is best for their children, and take them as they are, with all their ignorance, and their prejudices about them. Our success will be the greatest when we do the least violence to these prejudices; and they do not debar us from a wide field of labor for their advantage.

In giving to its students a practical knowledge of the pursuits of the laboring classes, this institution places them on vantage ground. It helps to fill up that chasm which separates the educated from the uneducated mind, and too often interdicts all sympathy between the school-master and the parents of the children intrusted to his charge.

So long as the domestic and inner life of the classes below us in the social scale—the whole world of those thoughts and feelings in which their children are interested—remain hidden from us, our efforts for their welfare, devised in ignorance, will, in a great measure, fail of their object. He who would explore this region close at our doors, and bring back to us tidings of it, would have a tale to tell as strange as of an undiscovered country, and far more important.

According to that theory of a school-master which these considerations would seem to suggest, his education, far from separating the link which unites him to the classes out of which he is taken, should strengthen it. His sympathies are to be with his own people. He is to take a lively interest in their pursuits. The scene of their daily toil is to be familiar to him. Those ideas associated with their craft, which include, within such narrow limits, the whole of their acquired knowledge—and the terms of their art, however technical—he is to be conversant with. Their intelligence is limited to the narrow circle which contains their daily bread. He is to enter that circle. The love of intellectual pursuits, perhaps never extinguished in the mind of man, loses its vivacity side by side with the pressing wants of animal life. He is to reawaken it. Out of the friendly relations and generous sympathies which result from an intercourse such as this, he is to build up a superstructure of mutual confidence and good will, and to dedicate the ascendency he thus acquires over the parent, to the welfare of the child. He is to reawaken in the bosom of the laboring man those natural sympathies which seem—under the influence of the manufacturing system—to be fast dying away, and to impel him to sacrifices in behalf of his child; to impress him with a deep sense of the responsibility under which he lies in the matter of its spiritual and eternal welfare, and to direct him as to the best means of promotiong it. It is not in any unreal character that he is thus to appear on his hearth, or with any jesuitical project of circumventing him for the advantage of his child; but simply that, taken from his own order, he is not to separate the link which unites him to that order; that, by both parentage and education, associated with the laboring classes, he is not to divest himself of those important advantages for fulfilling the duties of his mission, which that association supplies. With this view, neither in his dress, nor in his manners, nor in his forms of speech, is he to assume a distinctive or separated character, otherwise than as it regards that greater moral restraint, that gravity of speech, and sobriety of demeanor, which it would become the laboring man himself to cultivate.

This theory of a school-master is diametrically opposed to that on which the system of every other training college with which I am acquainted, is founded. The tendency of every other is elevating. This would repress those aspirations which are natural to the new condition of his intellectual being on which the student has entered, and which are usually associated with the office he seeks, and it would tether him fast to that state of life from which he started.

Nothing can be more just than that estimate of the moral necessities of the laboring man, which is its basis. Above all other things, that man wants a friend set free from the influences under which he is himself fast sinking—a friend, if it were possible, not divided from him by that wide interval which a few conventional distinctions are sufficient to interpose—to advise him, if not in the matter of his own welfare, in that of his children.

It is, however, a theory which in practice would not be without its perils. So close an approximation to the class below him, would have a tendency to separate the school-master from the class which is above him,—that class in which all his better and higher impulses will find their chief stay and support, and where alone he can, as yet, look for a cordial sympathy. That ascendency which education gives him over the minds of his ordinary associates, will tend to foster an independence of spirit inconsistent, perhaps, with the relation in which he must of necessity stand to the patrons and promoters of his school; and above all he will be the less likely to preserve those intimate and friendly relations with the clergyman, which are not less important to the spiritual welfare of the parish school and the parish, than to the personal comfort, and the self-respect of the school-master.

I have every where found a disposition on the part of the clergy to extend a friendly sympathy to the labors of the school-master, and I believe that they very generally rejoice in the opportunity which the superior education of the training colleges affords to them, of stretching out to him the right hand of Christian fellowship. Asperity of manners, an independent bearing, and a rude deportment, would repel these kindly feelings.

On the other hand, it may be questioned whether the opinion that the co-operation of the laboring classes in the work of the schoolmaster is to be gained by a closer approximation to themselves in his modes of thought and his way of life, is founded on correct estimate of the springs of public opinion amongst them, and whether some separation and the interposition of a few conventional distinctions do not serve to give weight to his counsels, and enhance the estimate formed of the value of his labors.

My own opinion is that a sincere and earnest interest in the welfare of their children, shown by a labor of industry and love, will overpower every other consideration in the minds of the poor, and that however great may be the advantage which a close association with them, and an intimate knowledge of their condition, give to the school-master, it will, in general, be dearly purchased by a conformity with their habits of life and modes of thought and action. It is an intercourse in which, whatever *they* may gain he will probably *lose*.

That state of things in which a breach between the class of elementary school-masters and the clergy shall have become wide and general, cannot be contemplated otherwise than with unmingled apprehension. The ascendency which education gives to them amongst the uneducated masses —ministering to their characteristic independence of spirit, their professional pride and their ambition—might, in such a case, prove a temptation and a snare too great for them to withstand, and by a slow but irresistible process, convert them into active emissaries of misrule.

With reference to the industrial pursuits which have suggested these remarks, it appears to me worthy of consideration whether in this institution they may not have acquired an ascendency which is not without its unfavorable influence on the literary pursuits of the place, and whether too large a sacrifice of healthful recreation is not made when, in fine weather, the students pass from their class-rooms into the workshops, instead of into the open air.

Of the whole number of students, I find that 18 spell incorrectly, 12 read and 8 write imperfectly; 10, upon the evidence of the exercises they have sent in, may be characterized as illiterate; 10 others have afforded in their exercises the evidence of a considerable amount of general literary attainment and mental culture; 20 write beautifully; 9 have acquitted themselves well in Scriptural knowledge, and the same number in Church History and the Liturgy; 4 in their answers to the questions on the Art of Teaching; 20 in Arithmetic, and some of these *admirably;* 5 in Natural Philosophy; 18 in Mechanics and Astronomy; 12 in Geography; 9 in English History; 45 in Algebra.

At my previous examinations I have been struck by the remarkable *disparity* which presents itself in this institution as to the general ability and acquired knowledge of the students. I have found among them some of vigorous intellect and of considerable attainments, and others whose defects of previous education and want of the natural endowments proper to an elementary teacher will not, I fear, be remedied by a residence however long continued.

If a sufficient number of candidates presented themselves for admission, to allow a selection from amongst them of those who are really qualified, this source of embarrassment might be removed. Such a number of candidates would, I doubt not, be found, if the obstacle which the fee presents to their admission could be overcome. At Battersea Training College the expedient has been adopted of lending to an eligible student that portion of his fee which is not covered by an exhibition; and the number of such exhibitions has been augmented by subscriptions to a fund specially devoted to that object.

It is, however, in my opinion, worthy of grave consideration whether the expenditure of the public money for educational purposes would not be greatly economised by the foundation of Government exhibitions in the training colleges.

The office of the school-master does not offer to a man desirous to provide for his children, and in a position to pay an annual fee of 25*l*., adequate advantages, either in respect to the remuneration attached to it or its social position. If, indeed, a shopkeeper, a warehouseman, a small manufacturer, or a farmer well to do in the world, have one child, who, by reason of a feebleness of character, or of bodily health, or perhaps of intellect, may be considered unequal to a more active and enterprising career in life, the training college will perhaps be sought as an asylum for him. Straitened as are these institutions (especially the Diocesan Colleges) in their resources, it is not easy to refuse a candidate who is thus prepared to pay the whole fee for admission. At the expiration of his course of instruction the qualifications of a student received under these circumstances, notwithstanding all the labor which may have been bestowed upon his instruction, will scarcely be found such as would obtain for him the public confidence, were it not for the guarantee which his residence in the training college has supplied. And so, after all, the public money will have been expended, and the public sympathies exhausted, not in raising the standard of intelligence in the existing body of school-masters, but at *best* in bringing up to the existing standard, men who would not otherwise have reached it.

I have brought out this evil, perhaps, beyond its just proportions; but it has been in the hope of fixing your Lordships' attention upon it, and with a view to its remedy. I have reason to know that it is operating in the training institutions as a great evil, and, I believe, that, if they fail of their results and disappoint the public expectation, this will lie at the root of the matter. It would be quite possible, if this fee were dispensed with, through the agency of the Inspectors, to fill the training colleges with men —in their qualifications for admission—very far indeed above the general standard of those who are now found in them. Were the question, whether from such a class of persons a body of efficient educators could be formed, wholly problematical as to its results, having such an object in view, it would surely be worthy a large expenditure of the public money to bring it to the test of an experiment. But it is not difficult to show that a really eligible candidate becomes, when admitted a student in our best training colleges, by a process in which there are very few instances of failure, a school-master capable of realizing all that we hope from him. Considering that the faith of the public in education hangs upon the fruit of these colleges, not less than the success of each individual school-master in the sphere of action particularly assigned to him, it would be folly to measure the services of such a man for the public welfare by the 40*l*. or 50*l*. of the public money which may have been expended in educating him.

My Report to your Lordships on this institution would not convey to you a just impression of it, did it not bear testimony to the very arduous character of the labors of the two gentlemen—the Principal and the Vice-Principal—on whom the entire management of it devolves. Besides that general supervision which the Principal exercises over it in all its departments, its whole correspondence is intrusted to him, and he takes an active part in the teaching of the students, not only during the hours devoted to study, but whilst they are engaged in their industrial occupations. If to these, his ordinary labors, be added those with which for the last two years he has been charged in superintending the building operations which have been going on at the model school-room and the chapel, it will, I think, be felt that claims are made upon his services which are incompatible with his own health and with the best interests of the institution.

The Model School.—The second week of my inspection I devoted to an examination of the model school.

One hundred and sixty-three boys were present on the day of my examination. These children, like those of every other model school which I have visited, appear to belong to a grade in society removed a little above that from which the children who usually attend National Schools are drawn. They attend with remarkable regularity, the average number of absentees during a period of six months, except by reason of sickness or with leave, being only *one* daily.

I have appended in this Report* a statement on this subject, which I have read with great interest.

The school is held in high and well deserved estimation by the parents, and it is obvious that under the influence of that estimation, they are prepared to make those sacrifices of the occasional services of their children, lest they should lose their learning, which in other schools they will not make. The irregularity of the attendance of the children of National Schools, I find to be every where alleged as an obstacle fatal to all the hopes of education. Here that obstacle is removed.

I have appended to this Report a copy of the note which is addressed to the parents of a child absent without leave. This note forms one part of the page of a book, resembling a cheque book, from which it is torn; a record of the notice being preserved on the other part. The arrangement is exceedingly convenient in practice, and might be introduced generally in National Schools with advantage.†

The discipline is admirable, it is maintained apparently with great ease, and affords the evidence of a subordination, influenced by moral causes,

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*MODEL SCHOOL.—ATTENDANCE.

From January 13th to June 26th. (A. D. 1845.)						
	Present.	Sick.	Leave.	Late.	Absent.	Total.
Total - - -	14,532	684	508	58	197	16,911
Daily Average -	126	7	4	—	1	129
From July 29th to November 7th.						
Total - - -	10,214	297	479	27	127	11,141
Daily Average -	139	4	6	—	1	129

From 2nd May, 1845, to 26th August, 1845—84 School days; during this time there were 151 Notes sent—for boys being late 38, and absent 113.

Excuses for being—

Late—Domestic arrangements bad, 20.—Errands, 10.—Idlers, 8.

Absent—Wanted by parents, 50.—At home, no reason given, 9.—Sick, 25.—No shoes, 4.—Truants, 3.—Domestic arrangements bad, 3.—Miscellaneous, 11.—Left, 6.

† No.____ CHESTER, ________ 184__

Name and number of boy } late or absent M. or A. { ____________

Last day for answer ____________

No. of boy sent ____________

When answered ____________

Reasons given ____________

No.____ CHESTER, ________ 184__

____________ has been late or absent this morning, or this afternoon, *without leave*, from the National School in the Training College.

RULE.

A parent or grown-up friend must come, or send a note, to the School, to tell why the boy was late or absent, on or before ________ next, or we shall consider that he has left the school.

____________ MASTER.

and cheerfully yielded. So far as this is apparent in the order and regularity of the school, it is greatly promoted by the school songs which accompany all the changes of the classes, and which the children sing as they assemble and when they leave.

The singing is the more remarkable, as its character is maintained apparently with very little effort, and the sacrifice of very little time.

Accustomed to oral instruction on the gallery, the children exhibit great power of attention, much quickness of apprehension, and greater resources of language than I am accustomed to find in schools of this class. They appear to be interested in what they are taught, to appreciate the value of learning, and to take a pleasure in it. That listlessness of manner and dreaminess so intimately associated in the mind of an inspector with the aspect of an elementary school, had certainly no place here on the days of my inspection. The children not less than their teachers, seemed to be in earnest in the business of the school, and the fervor and vivacity apparent on the one part, is at least commensurate with the zeal and ability exhibited on the other.

So far as this school, taught exclusively by the students of the college, may be taken as affording direct evidence of the skill they attain in the art of teaching, no other than a favorable estimate can be formed of it. The notes in which I have recorded the impressions which I derived from the opportunity afforded me of being present at a lesson delivered by each student, do not however bear an unqualified testimony to this fact.

Amongst them were some excellent teachers, earnest, vigorous, well instructed, and efficient, but there were others, wanting not only in the peculiar and professional qualifications of a teacher, but themselves very imperfectly educated. If I might be allowed a *general* criticism, it would be that the students whom I saw teach were not acquainted to the extent that might have been expected with the best methods of simplifying the primary elements of instruction. I doubt whether these had ever been made the subject of study with them. There was no evidence of any independent power to present the knowledge they themselves possessed under that form in which it is best adapted to the intelligence of children, or of any systematic instruction directed to that object, or indeed of any due appreciation of its importance to the success of elementary instruction.

NORMAL SCHOOLS

FOR THE

TRAINING OF FEMALE TEACHERS IN ENGLAND.

Besides the Normal School of the Home and Colonial Infant and Juvenile School Society already described, which is mainly devoted to the training of female teachers for a class of schools for which females are pre-eminently fitted by nature, there was established, in 1842, at Whiteland, Chelsea, by the National Society, an "Institution for the Training of Schoolmistresses." Since its establishment 93 pupils have been sent out as teachers, of which number 82 were in charge of schools in 1848. It has already been instrumental, in the opinion of Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools, Rev. F. Watkins, in rearing the standard of attainments of the schoolmistresses, and elevating their social position. The course of instruction, as presented in his Report to the Committee of Council on Education for 1848, extends through two years, but does not embrace any peculiar features as to subjects or methods, except as to the industrial employment of the pupils. In the printed Regulations for the admission of pupils, it is said:

> "Their attention will not be confined to the studies of the school-room. Whatever skill or knowledge may be of use in a poor man's family, either to increase the comforts of his fireside, to assist in bringing up his children, or to prepare his daughters to gain, in whatever capacity, a respectable livelihood, this will be diligently imparted. For this purpose they are carefully instructed in the art of plain needlework, knitting, marking, darning, &c. To give them practice and experience in this department, they are expected to cut out and make up the various articles of clothing secured to the poor children of the schools by their clothing clubs. The pupils are also required to cut out and make up their own clothes, as well as to undertake all other plain needlework which may be sent to the Institution. The teachers are practiced in the art of setting needlework for children, by preparing the work for the different classes in the school. The pupils have also been in the habit of making themselves useful in the laundry."

The Inspector makes the following remarks on the previous education of some of the pupil teachers of the institution.

> "It must be said, that some of them are exceedingly ignorant, being unable to work the four simple rules of arithmetic correctly, possessing little knowledge either of the Old or New Testament, altogether unskilled in geography, grammar, or English history, and utterly unable to spell words of the most common occurrence. It is hardly necessary to say, that this state of ignorance is not owing to any want of sufficient instruction in the training school, but to the deplorable neglect of sound elementary education in the families of those who are raised a little above the poorest class. It is from these families that the majority, I am told, of the young women in training are drawn. They have been educated, (if it be not misusing the term,) at 'private boarding-schools.' A little external dressing has been given to them, but rarely any internal culture. They have been taught some fancy needlework, and to write in a running hand; they can read fluently, but not with expression; they have learned by heart passages of Holy Scripture, a few hymns, and other pieces of poetry, but have seldom been directed to their meaning. On such material it is diffi-

> cult for the most skillful teacher of a training school to work with any effect She must carefully pull down before she begin to build up any structure on such an unsteady foundation; she must, indeed, lay a new foundation on different principles, and with a careful hand. It is, therefore, hardly fair to expect great results from the examination of pupils in the training colleges for mistresses, until they shall have received a more sound elementary education, and a longer period of training than two years shall have been allotted to them."

There exists also at Salisbury a similar seminary, styled the "Salisbury Diocesan Institute for the Training of Schoolmistresses." The institution was opened in 1841, and has been since maintained by donations and subscriptions to the amount of about £500 a year, for the purpose of providing a sufficient supply of "well-educated, right-minded, and thoroughly-trained young women for the schools of the diocese." Up to 1848, only 58 had left the institution to take schools. The following extract touches a most important point of inquiry before admitting pupils to a Normal School—and especially female pupils. In the Eighth Report of the Diocesan Board of Education, it is stated:

> "Since the beginning of 1846 two of the pupils died, and five have shown such symptoms of weak constitutions as to give no reasonable hope that they can ever undertake the anxious and trying duties of schoolmistresses. The Committee are very earnest in pressing this point upon the consciences of those who give or sign certificates with too much facility; and they say most truly. that, though it is not an uncommon opinion that the work of a schoolmistress may be undertaken by those whose constitution unfits them for other more active employments, the truth is, that the drain upon the constitution and spirits of a schoolmistress is very great, and none but those whose lungs are quite healthy, and whose constitution is in all respects good, can discharge its duties with any comfort, or for any length of time."

The Inspector, in the Report of his visit to the school in 1848, observes:

> "It appears to me, that at present the domestic employments of the pupils, if not too much of a servile, are too little of an instructive, economical character. It is said, and doubtless with great truth, that occasional employment in even such works as scrubbing, cleaning shoes, &c., has a beneficial tendency in correcting faults of vanity, indolence, &c., and in giving a practical lesson of humility; and I should be far from wishing to abolish it. Indeed, I hold it to be of great importance to employ the pupils in works that tend to increase their sympathy with the poor. But surely it is of not less importance that young women intended for a really liberal profession should have ample opportunities of learning the cost of materials, the best and cheapest modes of preparing them, and the comparative expense of various modes of housekeeping; and so of acquiring experience which will be available to them, both in the management of their own affairs, and in conversing with the parents of their pupils, who will be glad to consult them if they find them practical guides. With well-arranged offices, under the superintendence of the mistress or a good assistant, the elder girls might profitably devote some portion of their time to these matters, and might connect them with their studies, both by composing essays on subjects of domestic economy, and by keeping the accounts of the establishment upon the most approved system."

Syllabus of a Course of Lectures on Education; its Principles and Practice, by William Knighton, Professor of the Art of Teaching in the Whiteland Training School for Mistresses.

I.—*The Principles or Theory of Education.*

Education a *science* and an *art*—a science, inasmuch as it investigates the principles upon which tuition is, or ought to be, conducted; an art in affording rules for its conduct and putting them into practice; object of education in its highest and widest signification; the etymology of the word referred to; the human being a religious and moral, an intellectual, and a physical animal; education therefore threefold, of the body, the mind, and the soul or spirit; their relative importance; the end of man's existence on earth, not his happiness or gratification, but performance of duty; this brings with it the truest happiness; our duty threefold also. (1.) All attempts to form a moral being without the aid and influence of religion hitherto unsuccessful—history convinces us of this fact; warranted in concluding religion and morality inseparable; how the religious and moral powers are to be cultivated; the Bible the rule of faith; how the Bible, and its auxiliary to the ignorant mind, the Catechism, are to be taught, a question for practical education. (2.) The intellectual nature of man; necessity of its cultivation if man is to fill properly the sphere allotted to him on earth; constant necessity for the exercise of the intellect in the daily affairs of life; advantages of its cultivation—disadvantages of its neglect; different powers of the mind all useful in different ways; attention, association of ideas, conception, abstraction, imagination, and reason or judgment, all to be cultivated harmoniously; evils of allowing one faculty undivided sway; qualities which constitute a well-regulated mind, a habit of attention, a power of regulating the succession of thoughts, mental activity, habits of reflection and association, proper relation of objects of pursuit, government of the imagination, culture, and regulation of the judgment, proper moral feeling. (3.) The physical nature of man; necessity of knowing something of it; evils of neglecting its development; benefits of health, vigor, and bodily activity to all; caution not to make to much of it.

II.—*The Practice of Education.*

1. *The school-room*—its adaptation to the purposes of education the primary consideration; the infant school-room—its gallery, dimensions, construction, and convenient disposition in the room; uses of infant gallery; the blackboard or large slate, pictures, card-stands; should books be used in the infant school? Yes, but for the highest class only; smaller boards or slates for classes. Juvenile school-room—importance of a gallery; utility of parallel desks for classes—those of the National Society excellent; each row of seats should differ in height; general arrangement of classes to suit the room; for both schools a play-ground necessary; its importance in moral training; "the uncovered school-room;" how it should be used; neatness and cleanliness of the covered and uncovered school-room to be attended to; influence of this upon the children's character; ventilation; temperature. The class-room—necessity of it in a large school; its arrangement and most convenient position.

2. *The Pupils.*—Evils of grown-up children in infant schools; sympathy of numbers; influence of this principle in the school and in the world; examples—Bacon's "Idols of the Forum;" the result of want of attention to this principle, and neglect of its cultivation in education; advantages likely to be derived by both sexes from their mingling in schools; evils to be guarded against in schools for girls alone; power of the gallery vastly increased in the mixed school; its power of condemnation, and its utility in inflicting severe punishment on an individual offender; different method of treatment to be adopted with town and country children; object in the town to turn the mental activity, the "sharpness," to proper account, and direct it to proper objects of pursuit; in the country to develop the open unsuspecting character and increase the mental acuteness by judicious training; difference between training and teaching.

3. *The Teacher.*—Mental qualities and habits of thought most valuable for the teacher; piety, patience, perseverance, and a sympathy with children to be cultivated assiduously; impartiality or freedom from injustice indispensable to form a really good teacher; activity of mind and body essential; immense influence exercised by the teacher on the pupil-teachers and scholars; good example better than good precepts; importance of attention in minute matters to the rules of the school; discipline thus inculcated and enforced—"Let all things be done decently and in order;" attention to trifles necessary; time often wasted; danger of being puffed up with pride; necessity of humility; impossibility of those succeeding who take no interest in the work; happiness of managing a well-kept improving school; impression respecting the misery of school-keeping quite erroneous; dress should be cleanly, neat, and simple.

4. *Organization of the School.*—Superiority of pupil-teachers to monitors; pupil-teachers may be taught much with the highest class in simultaneous lessons; evils produced by neglect of the school in order to devote too much time and labor to pupil-teachers; advantages of a good classification; evils of maintaining the same classification in all subjects; those quick in acquiring a knowledge of reading often dull in arithmetic; necessity therefore of all working arithmetic at the same time, in order to admit of a

new classification for that subject; time-tables not to be lightly or hastily constructed or altered; advantages of the classes passing successively under the teacher's own eye; difficulties likely to be encountered in opening a school; practical suggestions for overcoming them; rules for avoiding waste of time.

5. *Discipline.*—Necessity of enforcing discipline; which is the stronger motive to obedience, love or fear? conclusions to be drawn from the answer; evil influence of constant change of rules; necessity of adhering to those once established; good effect of early attention to rules on the subsequent character of the pupils; nature of punishment, parental, legal, and vindictive; necessity of some punishment (not corporal) to enforce discipline; its nature and object to be explained to the children in Bible lessons; when correction had recourse to, utility of referring to these lessons; vindictive punishment disclaimed; the gallery the great instrument for severe punishment; may be inflicted without meaning the offender, by reference to the fault in a Bible lesson; detention in school, except for late attendance, not to be resorted to; nothing but the most imperative necessity can justify expulsion; solemnity which should accompany it; necessity for a thorough command of temper in the teacher; difficulties connected with the use of emulation as a mental stimulus; doubts with respect to its being a healthy one; minor matters of discipline too frequently neglected.

6. *Method of Teaching.*—Simultaneous gallery lessons most advantageously given in the way inculcated in the "Training System", by Mr. Stow; Bible lessons or lessons on the Catechism or Liturgy in the morning very advantageously given according to this method; advantages of the mingling of questions and ellipses judiciously; of "picturing out" as a mental exercise; secular lessons in the afternoon similarly; rule not to tell the children what can be drawn from them by exercising their judgment or association of ideas or imagination; their mental powers thus cultivated; guessing to be avoided; the lessons to be made as interesting as possible; care to be taken not to sacrifice utility in the attempt to render the lesson interesting or attractive; importance of a proper division of simultaneous lessons; of systematic lessons on Holy Scripture; of courses of lessons on scientific or other secular subjects: evils of want of system; in division of lessons care to be taken that the narrative comes first and the application subsequently; reason of this; general rules for dividing Bible lessons; for secular; method of giving such lessons; voice, manner, enunciation; importance of the blackboard, or large slate; necessity of some slight facility in sketching in order to be able to illustrate the lesson.

7. *On Teaching Reading.*—Synthetic method best in teaching to read; a simple word presented, and its sound and appearance taught; analysis of it subsequently; advantages and disadvantages of the phonic method of teaching the alphabet; no necessity to begin with the alphabet; simultaneous reading of 10 or 15 at a time useful, if the teacher reads well; danger of carrying this too far; importance of the teacher reading clearly, distinctly, and calmly; simultaneous method excellent in eradicating the propensity to sing, often found in schools.

8. *On Teaching Arithmetic.*—Importance of attention to first principles: explanations of rules too frequently neglected; necessity of proper classification for arithmetic; the ground-work of an arithmetical education its most important part; necessity of attention to elementary classes; different methods of teaching numeration, and the simple rules; immense practical importance of simplicity in explanation, and clearness of definition; mental arithmetic should be taught for its utility, not for show; the kind of questions likely to be practically useful; examples.

9. *On Teaching Geography.*—The nature of maps to be first explained and illustrated by a ground plan of a school; great outlines of the country or continent delineated on the blackboard useful; importance of giving facts with names, and thus calling in the association of ideas to the aid of the memory; manners and conditions of the inhabitants of different countries too often neglected; the outlines of general history may be advantageously combined with geography; a box of sand of great use in teaching geography in infant schools.

10. *On Teaching Grammar.*—Interesting lessons may be given by a judicious teacher on the distinctions between the parts of speech; examples of such; general rules on the illustration of each particular part; in elementary lessons on grammar the slates should be constantly in the children's hands; necessity of a very gradual progress in the lessons on this subject; absurdity of supposing that it can be properly taught in a very short time; utility of grammatical analysis; composition to be taught with grammar; varieties in methods of parsing adopted by different authors; Latham's Grammar a very philosophical work; should be studied by teachers; Broomley's abridgment of it, useful as a manual.

11. *On Teaching Writing.*—Writing on slates may be taught from the very commencement of a child's school life; useful exercise to make them attempt the forms of letters as infants; strokes and such like thus rendered useless; habits of order, neatness, cleanliness, and obedience, may be cultivated in teaching writing; in advanced classes all should commence to write each individual line at the same time; a second line should not be commenced till the first has been inspected; reason of this rule; writing from dictation the best method of teaching spelling; composition, as combined with grammar lessons, also teaches writing and spelling.

KNELLER HALL TRAINING SCHOOL,

FOR

TEACHERS OF PAUPER CHILDREN.

The Kneller Hall Training School, located at Twickenham, twelve miles out of London, is under the direct control of the Committee of Council on Education; and was established in 1846, for the special purpose of training teachers for workhouse and penal schools.

According to the returns of the Poor Law Board, there were on the 1st of January, 1851, 43,138 children, under sixteen years of age, in the workhouses of England and Wales, and in connection with these workhouses, 838 teachers were employed.

The number of children of the same age, receiving outdoor relief at the same date, was 276,613. These children did not attend the workhouse schools, and in all probability they did not attend any day school, but they indicate an educational want of the most desperate kind.

From the reports of the Prison Inspectors for 1850, it appears that out of 166,941 prisoners confined in the gaols of England and Wales in 1849, 12,955, or nearly eight per cent, were under seventeen years of age. With the exception of the schools at Parkhurst and Redhill, (the latter a private institution,) little has been done for the reformatory influence of education upon this class.

These returns show an aggregate of 332,706 children, toward whom the state stands more or less in *loco parentis*, and for whose moral, physical, intellectual, and industrial training, every dictate of humanity and wise economy demands that the state should make immediate and thorough provision in schools and teachers of the right kind. The general condition of these children as to education, as compared with the system now to be introduced, is set forth in the following remarks by Rev. H. Mosely, one of the inspectors of schools, appointed by the Committee of Council, in a report on the Kneller Hall Training School. The quotations are from official documents on the condition of the poor.

The system of education under the old poor law was that of parish apprenticeship. Pauper children were bound apprentices to such persons as were supposed capable of instructing them in some useful calling. In some cases this was by compulsion, the apprentices being assigned to different rate-payers, who render themselves liable to fines if they refuse to receive them, which fines sometimes went to the rates, and in other cases were paid as premiums to persons who afterward took these apprentices. Another method of apprenticeship was by premiums paid from the rates to masters who, in consideration of such premiums, were contented to take pauper children as apprentices.

The evils of this system were manifold:—

1st. As it regarded the independent laborer, whom, by its competition, it prevented "from getting his children out, except by making them parish paupers, he having no means of offering the advantages given by the parish," and in whom it discouraged that which in a parent is the strongest motive to self-denial, forethought, and industry—a desire to provide for his children.

2dly. As it regards those to whom the children were apprenticed; who, when they took them on compulsion, took them at an inconvenience and a disadvantage—to whom these parish apprentices "were much worse servants and less under control than others,"—who often found them "hostile both in conduct and disposition, ready listeners, retailers of falsehood and scandal of the family affairs, ready agents of mischief of the parents and other persons ill disposed to their employers,"—who "not unfrequently excited the children to disobedience, in order to get their indentures cancelled,"—they were the unwilling servants of unwilling masters; they could not be trusted, and yet could not be dismissed. The demoralization of the apprentices made them undesirable inmates. They disseminate in the parish the morals of the workhouse.

3dly. As it regards the children themselves:—

1. They were often apprenticed to "needy persons, to whom the premium offered was an irresistible temptation to apply for them," and "after a certain interval had been allowed to elapse, means were not unfrequently taken to disgust them with their occupation, and to render their situations so irksome as to make them abscond."

2. They were looked upon by such persons as "defenseless, and deserted by their natural protectors," and were often cruelly ill-treated. So that to be treated "worse than a parish apprentice" has passed into a proverb.

3. Not only was their moral culture neglected, but their moral well-being was often totally disregarded. The facts related under this head are fearful. There was a mutual contamination. The system appears, says Mr. Austin, to have led directly to cruelty, immorality, and suffering, although, in some cases, exceptions to the rule, apprenticeship was not unproductive of certain beneficial results to both master and apprentice.

4. Their instruction in any useful calling was for the most part neglected, because their masters were often unfit to teach them, and because they were obstinately unwilling to learn. The position which the parish apprentice occupied in the house was therefore commonly that of the household drudge.

It is scarcely to be wondered at, that among a race thus born in pauperism, and educated to it, pauperism became *hereditary*.

"When a family is once on the parish," says Mr. Chadwick, (report of 1833, London and Berkshire,) "it is very difficult to get them off. We have seen three generations of paupers, (the father, the son, and the grandson,) with their respective families at their heels, trooping to the overseer every Saturday for their weekly allowances."

"Pauper parents," says Mr. Carleton Tufnell, (report on the education of pauper children, 1839,) "reared pauper children, and their habit of dependence on the poor's rate seemed to descend as part of their natures from generation to generation. To stop this hereditary taint would be to annihilate the greater part of the pauperism of the country."

"In many unions," says Mr. Jelinger Symons, (report for 1848, on parochial union schools, Wales and the Western district,) "the same family names of paupers continue for a century in the rate-books. Pauperism is an hereditary disease. There is a pauper class, and hence the importance of eradicating the seeds of it in pauper children."

"To say that the old poor law, with its parish apprenticeship by way of education, had failed, is to speak too leniently of it." (I quote this passage from Mr. Temple's notes.) "It was rapidly demoralizing the whole lower order. The mass of evil was such as to unite all real statesmen of all parties in one effort to abolish it."

When the Poor Law Board abolished the system of education by apprenticeship, they took upon themselves the responsibility of providing some better form of education. Every workhouse was accordingly required to provide a schoolmaster who should educate the children. For which purpose they were to be completely separated from the adults, and instructed for at least three hours every day.

Lest the guardians should be tempted to employ inefficient schoolmasters, that they might not have to pay them high salaries, it was afterward provided that the salaries of workhouse schoolmasters should be paid out of a grant voted specially for that purpose by Parliament; and, later still, these salaries were ordered to be determined by your Lordships, upon examination by Her Majesty's Inspectors.

"This system had (says Mr. Temple) the inestimable advantage over the other, of making some one responsible for the education of the children. The pauper child had now some one to care for him, which before he had not. His education was now an object of real interest to some one."

It had, however, conspicuous defects.

Under the old system the children were liable to evil associations and bad examples out of the walls of the workhouse; now they received the evil impression of the workhouse itself, and became liable to contamination within its walls, by unavoidable contact with adult paupers. Abundant evidence is to be found of these facts, and of their consequences, in the reports of your inspectors.

"Great mischief," says Mr. Stuart, in his report on the Blything incorporation, 1833, "is done by familiarizing the minds of the children to the restraints of the workhouse, which destroys all reluctance to being sent back to it in after-life."

"A boy educated in, perhaps, the best shool in my district," says Mr. Bowyer, "being ill-used by his master, ran away, and brought a complaint against him before a magistrate. After hearing his story, the magistrate, knowing him to be a friendless orphan, asked him where he intended to go? 'Home, sir,' said the boy. 'But, my lad, you have no home,' said the magistrate. 'Oh, sir,' was the reply, 'I mean the workhouse.'"

"I have known them," says Mr. Chadwick, "when sent out on liking to respectable people, to have come back to the workhouse, being dissatisfied with the treatment those respectable persons gave them, as compared with the workhouse treatment."

"There are two obstacles to the establishment of satisfactory schools in workhouses," says Mr. Hall, (in his report on Berks and Oxon, 1838,) "that operate every where under the present system. One is the mixture which seems unavoidable between the children and the adult paupers. This is especially detrimental among the females. The girls are set to work in the kitchens, the sleeping wards, and the wash-houses, with young women of depraved character." Nor does much improvement seem to have taken place since this report was written, for Mr. Browne reports, in 1849, that in more than 70 workhouses in his district the children are not separated from the adult paupers;" and that, "even in the *better description* (*i. e.*, where such separation is supposed to exist) of workhouses, opportunities of contact continually arise. The children and the adult inmates not only meet at meals and dinner service, but the elder girls are often kept from school to nurse infants or they wash, or cleanse the house, or assist in the kitchen in company with the women."

When it is borne in mind that the inmates of workhouses almost invariably include prostitutes, "who seem to frequent them as lying-in hospitals," the evil of this association may be judged of. "Out of thirteen children whom I found in one workhouse," says Mr. Bowyer. (1848,) "being nursed by the girls, nine were the bastard children of mothers of this class."

It is impossible not to feel that Mr. Tufnell speaks in measured terms of a system like this, when in 1849 he says of it, "The experience of this year has still further convinced me of the hopelessness of expecting any general or permanent benefit to arise from the training of pauper children, as long as they remain within the precincts of the union workhouse."

Another defect inseperable from the education of the workhouse school is the false position of the teacher in a workhouse. "The children form, on the average, a clear moiety of the number of inmates; the spirit of the internal regulations is, however, mainly directed to the government of the adults; nor can it well be otherwise so long as the two are united under the same roof." (Mr. Ruddock's report on the southern district, 1847-48.) This fact at once constitutes an anomalous position for the schoolmaster. He must be in subordination to the governor of the workhouse, and yet their duties are essentially different. Nor can their characters be alike; the one chosen to control an adult community inured to indolence and vice; the other, to form the minds of children, to bestow upon them the care and the love of a parent, and to bring them up to industry and to the fear of God. The views of two such officers and their functions can not but be continually clashing, and we need not be surprised that it is often found impossible to maintain a good understanding between them," (Mr. Tufnell in 1847-48.) "The children, too," (says Mr. Templer.) "are in a false position. The arrangements are all made with a view to the adults. But the children are totally unlike the adults in their faults, their needs, their chance of being reclaimed." "Whilst (in a workhouse) the industral and moral training is entirely sacrificed, the intellectual is cramped and thwarted."

But the most striking point of view in which the present arrangement appears defective is, *the impossibility of uniting with it the suitable industrial training of the children.* The laborer's cottage, however bad a school in other respects, has this advantage, that it is a good place for the industrial training of his children; he knows the importance to them of being brought up to labor. I have myself known parents—capable of making sacrifices that their children may go to school, and willing to do so if they thought it for their welfare—yet object to do so after the children were of an age to work, lest, as they said, "they should not take kindly to labor."

The example of industry which a laborer's cottage affords; his watchful eye lest habits of idleness should grow upon his children; and the exigencies of the household, which claim that all its members should contribute to the common fund which feeds and clothes all, make of it a school of industry; and, perhaps, the best school in which industry can be learned.

The old poor law system of education by apprenticeship, with all its vices, had, moreover, its system of industrial training; a bad system, no doubt, tending to make labor repugnant to the children, but still calculated to accustom and to inure them to it. The very pastimes of another child, and that part of its life which is passed in the fields or in the streets, is industrial training, compared with the gloomy existence of a workhouse child.

In the great majority of workhouses the children are stated to have no industrial training at all. Where they have, it is commonly of a sedentary kind. "They are sometimes taught a little shoe-making or tailoring; the best of their occupations are carpentering or bookbinding; but in many cases they make hooks and eyes, or sort bristles, and pick oakum." "A boy thus brought up" (says Mr. Bowyer) "is unfitted for an agricultural laborer; he can neither dig, hoe, nor plough; is puzzled with harness, and afraid of a horse. Any hard or continuous labor exhausts his body and wearies his mind. He has formed a completely false conception of the life that awaited him."

"One lad," (says the chaplain of a union in Wales, writing to Mr. Ruddock,) "strong and active to all appearance, was engaged as a farm laborer, but being unable to handle any tool, except in the most clumsy manner, was jeered at by the men, consequently he became discouraged, and feeling alone and friendless, he returned to the workhouse, where he will probably be an incumbrance for life, as he has declared that he never wishes to leave it again."

"Children thus shut up," says Mr. Henderson, (report on Lancashire, 1833,) "in ignorance and idleness, and exposed to the moral contamination of a workhouse, are almost necessarily unfit for the duties required of them as apprentices. All labor is an intolerable hardship, their masters, objects of aversion, and they rarely acquire habits of industry in after-life."

"An orphan or deserted child educated from infancy to the age of twelve or fourteen in a workhouse," (says Sir J. P. Kay Shuttleworth,) "if taught reading, writing, and arithmetic only, is generally unfitted for earning his livelihood by labor."

It is not only with reference to the forming of the habits of labor in pauper children that the present system is defective, but with reference to the full development of the power to labor—of the thews and sinews of the laborer.

"Pauper children" (says Mr. Temple) "are decidedly, as a class, below the children of the independent laborer in physical development.

"Their physical conformation and physiognomy," (says Sir J. P. Kay Shuttleworth, in his report on the training of pauper children,) "betray that they have inherited from their parents physical and moral constitutions, requiring the most vigorous and careful training to render them useful members of society. They arrive at the school in various stages of squalor and disease; some are the incurable victims of scrofula; others are constantly liable to a recurrence of its symptoms; almost all exhibit the consequences of the vicious habits, neglect, and misery of their parents." "The stunted growth of many of these children" (says Mr. Tremenheere,) "was apparent; whether from early privations elsewhere, or the depressing influence of long confinement within the walls of a workhouse, with not enough of healthful exercise, or stimulus of change of scene and new objects, or whether, also, it may have resulted from a long continued uniformity of diet."

If to other children, then especially to these, other than sedentary occupations, freedom, exercise, and the open air are necessary to healthy physical development and growth.

"Hence," (says Mr. Tufnell, in 1847-48,) "with a view to securing the health of the boys, garden or field labor is, I am satisfied, superior to most others." "I find a great unanimity," says Mr. Symons, (1849,) "as to the kind of industrial labor deemed the fittest for boys by guardians who reflect on the subject. Spade husbandry is almost invariably chosen, not only on account of the return derivable from it, but from its aptness for developing moral character as well as bodily strength and health."

"The introduction of industrial training," (says Mr. Bowyer. 1849.) "has been every where attended by a marked improvement in the appearance and bodily vigor of the boys; and their progress in their studies, so far from being retarded by it, has generally been promoted. notwithstanding the reduction in the number of hours devoted to instruction." "And," (Mr. Browne, 1849,) "industrial training for boys ought, I am convinced, to consist in the cultivation of land. It is remarkable that boys employed in field-work make greater progress than those who are not so employed, although the latter may give to study nearly twice as much time as the former."

The ages of the pauper children (nearly 25 per cent. are above the age of 12 years) are such as to render industrial training in field labor practicable in their case to an extent that it is not, in other elementary schools.

To break, then, the link which in the mind of the pauper child binds him to the workhouse as a home, which associates it in his mind with the state of life allotted to him and his destiny—to take from him the stamp and impression of it—and to emancipate him from the regime of its course of thought and standard of opinion,—to free him from its pestilent associations and evil example—and, above all, to prepare him to take his place in the ranks of independent industry, by a judicious course of industrial training, for all these objects a substitute is needed for the workhouse school.

This fact has received a practical recognition from the Legislature in the Act of 7 and 8 Vict. c. 101., which provided for the formation of school districts and district pauper schools, where the children should be collected from the workhouses of the district, instructed in such useful knowledge as is suitable to their condition, and trained to industry.

This Act gave to the Poor Law Commissioners power to form school districts. But it affixed certain limits of area and population, and it provided that the expense of starting, to be borne by the unions of the district, should not exceed one-fifth of the entire annual expenses of those unions; provisions which rendered the Act inoperative; the limitations were impracticable, and no school could be built for the money. In 1847, an Act was passed removing the limitation as to cost, but depriving the commissioners of their power to erect the school without the consent of the guardians or a majority of them.

This new condition has rendered the new Act nearly as inoperative as the old one. Six district schools only have been formed in the entire country. In other respects, the declared intentions of the Legislature remain without effect. "It is obvious" (says Mr. Temple) "that the reasons for the establishment of district schools are not of a nature to be readily appreciated by boards of guardians." The object of such schools is national; their operation, to be successful. must cover a large surface, and extend over a long period; and their results, however certain, are remote, belonging rather to posterity than ourselves. Considerations of this class are not likely to have weight with boards of guardians. The operation of such boards is local, isolated, and independent, and their function is temporary, having in view the present necessities of the poor, and the protection of the present rate-payers. It has nothing to do with posterity.

With reference to the probable occupation of the students of your normal school, as masters, at some future time, of district schools, the Committee of Council provided in 1846, for the erection, in connection with it, of "a model school of industry for the pauper children of some of the London unions." Nothing can be more important than to give to the students the benefit of that experience which such a school would offer, or to the country the model of a pauper school conducted on sound principles.

In the training of teachers for that object, labor is an essential element. Teachers of industry must practice it, and must be inured to it. A schoolmaster unable to work would be almost as much misplaced in his field garden as one unable to read and write would be in his school.

Industrial work enters accordingly very largely into the daily routine of Kneller Hall. Appended is a list of the rules by which it is regulated.

RULES FOR REGULATING THE FIELD-WORK.

1. The gong will sound at five minutes before two, and the bell will immediately begin to ring, and continue till two. The return bell will ring at a quarter before five.
2. The students are to muster at the tool-house, and the names to be called over by the captain of the field as soon as the bell stops.
3. Students not in time to answer to their names will remain out till five o'clock.
4. Students more than a quarter of an hour after time, or a second time in the same week too late to answer to their names, will go to work all day the next day.
5. No leave of absence will be given to any student, unless applied for before 11 in the morning, and notified, when obtained, to the captain of the field.
6. As soon as names have been called, the captain of the field will read out what work each student is to do, and what tools he will require; and each student as his name is read will take his tools and proceed to work.
7. As soon as the second bell rings each student will clean his tools, and proceeding to the tool-house deliver them up to the captain.
8. The ground will be gradually divided into plots, and as each plot is marked off it will be assigned to one of the students, who will be captain of that plot.
9. No work will be done on any plot except under the direction of its captain, but he will not be always working there.
10. The captain of a plot will keep a weekly report of work done on his plot, and an account of all expenditure and receipts from it.
11. The students will take turns weekly, two by two, to attend upon the horse in the afternoons. These turns are not to be shifted from one to another without leave.
12. The students will take turns weekly, one by one, to milk the cows. They are to be milked immediately before tea in the afternoon, and immediately after prayers in the morning.
13. Both the above rotations to be in alphabetical order.
14. The industrial master will give a weekly report of the way in which each student's work has been done for that week.

DUTIES OF THE CAPTAINS.

General.

1. To prevent indecorous noise in the bedroom.
2. To report to the principal, *in writing* and *immediately*, any thing requiring attention in the bedroom.
3. To light and put out the gas.
4. To warn any of the students whom they see breaking the rules. If a captain has been present at such a breach of rules, and has not warned those who are so doing, he alone will be held responsible.
5. To see that their rooms, viz., the library, lecture-rooms, &c., be properly cleaned.

Special.

I.—The Captain of the Library.

1. To report every morning in writing to the principal the names of students *present* at prayers that morning and the evening before.
2. To collect the exercise books on the days appointed, *whether done or undone*, and bring them to the principal at seven in the evening, reporting absentees.
3. To give the principal on Friday night at evening prayers a statement of the lectures given during the week.
4. To take charge of and distribute ink, pens, and other stationery.

II.—The Captain of the Field.

1. To give the industrial master every evening a list of the students who will have charge of the practicing school the next day, specifying the time and classes.
2. To obtain from the industrial master every morning at breakfast time a list of the work to be done by each boy in the practicing school, and to give the necessary information to the student in charge of the boys when at work.
3. To inform the industrial master every morning before twelve, whether any and what students have obtained leave of absence from work.
4. To call the names at two o'clock.
5. To give out tools.
6. To receive them back again. See that they are properly cleaned and replaced. If the industrial master afterward finds any tools not replaced, or not properly cleaned, the captain of the field will be liable to a day's work.
7. To prepare for the principal a weekly report of the work done every day, and of the farm and garden accounts, both then to be countersigned by the industrial master.

III.—The Captain of the Laboratory.

1. Always to have every thing in readiness for the chemical lecturer.
2. To keep the keys of the laboratory, and to allow no one to go there, except in his company, or with written leave from the principal, or by express order from the chemical lecturer.
3. To keep an exact account of the state of the chemical and physical apparatus, as to breakages, need of repairs, &c.; and to report every week to the chemical lecturer.

The system of training will be best understood from a description of the daily routine, the course of lectures, the methods of maintaining discipline, and the management of the practicing school, in a memorandum by Mr Temple, the principal of the school.

The students rise at six, and prayers (taken from the Liturgy) are read at half-past. Lectures commence after prayers and continue till breakfast time at eight. The half-hour after breakfast is employed, at the discretion of the students, in preparing for the ensuing lectures. The lectures recommence at nine and continue till one, which is the hour for dinner. At a quarter past two the students are required to be ready to proceed to the field, where they are employed in manual labor till half-past four, when they return to prepare for tea at five. After tea their time is occupied with exercises, writing out their notes of lectures, and occasionally with lectures till a quarter before ten, when they take supper. Prayers are read at ten, and all lights extinguished before half-past.

The students are required to brush their own clothes, and to clean their own boots and shoes. They have charge of the lecture-rooms, library, and chemical laboratory. But they do not make their own beds or sweep out the bedrooms, nor clean the knives and forks or plates after meals. They wait upon themselves at dinner, but do not lay the cloth or bring the dishes from the kitchen.

On Saturdays there are no lectures after breakfast, but the time is chiefly occupied with reading and correcting essays written during the week. Saturday afternoon is a half holiday, when masters generally join them at cricket or football; or such students as desire to do so are allowed to go out to walk. On Saturday evening a lecture is generally given, which only those are required to attend who have signified their intention to do so.

On Sundays they rise at eight, and morning prayers are read in the chapel at half-past eight. This service consists of the office for Morning Prayer, as directed to be used when the Litany is to be read. The Litany is not, however, read then. The service occupies about half an hour, and is followed by breakfast. A second service commences at eleven, consisting of the Litany, Communion Service, and Sermon. Dinner is at one, as usual; and the afternoon service is read at half-past four. In the evening all the school attend a Divinity lecture immediately before supper. After supper prayers are read at the usual time.

The subjects of the lectures have been—divinity, history, geography, grammar, mathematics, physics, and music.

The Divinity lectures commenced with reading simultaneously the first three gospels. As, however, it was deemed desirable that the text of one at least of the gospels should be accurately known, and it seemed unwise to attempt more, particular stress was laid upon St. Matthew, and the substance of that gospel was almost got by heart. The Acts of the Apostles were then read, and then the Old Testament was commenced. The historical books of the Old Testament were read in order, down to the time when the Prophetical writings begin. The Prophets were then read simultaneously with the history, so that each might illustrate and explain the other. The lecture has continued to the end of Ezekiel.

These lectures were given every day before breakfast throughout last year. Since Christmas, that hour has been assigned to the delivery of the same course to the students then admitted; and the course has been continued to the last year's class three days in the week, from nine to ten.

On the alternate days a course of lectures has been given, to the same class, on the history of the Church. This course will continue after the vacation, and will include the study of our own formularies and of the Catechism.

On Sunday evening St. Paul's Epistles have been read in chronological order.

The lectures on history were so arranged that the history of England occupied exactly a year, one hour a day being devoted to the subject. The Vice-Principal then gave a course of lectures, to the same class, on the history of English literature and the characteristics of the great English writers.

On Tuesday morning the Vice-Principal gives out a subject, generally, but not always, of an historical character, on which every student is required to compose an English essay. These essays are collected immediately after breakfast on Saturday, and in the course of the morning are read aloud in the presence of all the students, either before the Vice-Principal or myself. Opportunity is then taken to point out defects in style or in grammar; and the presence of the body of students is found to have a wholesome influence in stimulating all to do their best.

In geography, the course commenced with the geography of England which was carefully studied in detail. The physical geography of the world then followed, so as to explain the great features of the land and water, the elements of geology, the phenomena of the atmosphere, the geographical distribution of plants and animals. These lectures will continue till Christmas and will include the political and commercial geography of the world, treated in connection with the great physical lectures. One hour a day has been devoted to this subject throughout.

Mathematical geography was treated as a part of popular astronomy, to which subject two hours a week were assigned for three quarters of a year. These lectures commenced after the summer vacation, and terminated at Easter.

Three hours a week were given to grammar for three quarters of a year. It was then thought advisable to give the students the opportunity of comparing the forms and rules of their own language with those of another, and French lessons were substituted for the grammar twice a week. A lecture was also given on Saturday evenings to such as chose to attend, on the outlines of logic as connected with grammar.

Two hours a day were assigned to lectures on mathematics and physic. Since Christmas the chemical laboratory has been in use, and two additional hours a week have been devoted to lectures on chemistry. The students who have been already once examined for *certificates of merit*, have read Mr. Tate's arithmetic, algebra, mechanics, and mensuration; six books of Euclid, with numerous deductions, partly worked without any assistance, partly with such hints as appeared to be necessary; and the commencement of analytical geometry and of differential calculus. Their attainments on first entering are found to be very various, and their powers not less so. It is not possible therefore to keep them all at the same level. Of the ten students mentioned, one will, without doubt, be thoroughly master of the differential calculus before he leaves, and one sufficiently so to render further help unnecessary. The rest do not come up to these.

The chemical lectures are intended to bear particularly upon agriculture. They have not continued long enough, as yet, to supply means of judging as to their success; but I have little doubt, from the interest which they attract, that they will be found extremely useful.

Three hours a week have been given to music. The students also sing a hymn at morning and evening prayers, and chant the Canticles and sing Psalms in the Sunday services.

The teaching has been entirely oral. The lectures are given from notes, and afterward written out by the students. Text-books have been used, but only as supplying a frame-work to be filled up by the lecturer. The students at their first admission are not in a condition to prepare their own lessons by reading. They require the contact of mind with mind, the living presence of the lecturer, the perpetual commentary supplied by voice and gesture, and the slight but constant adaptation of each step in the course to the state of their own knowledge. Even a written lecture, as a means of educating such men, is very inferior to one delivered extempore from notes; but a mere examination upon the contents of a book is almost useless. They seem unable, in fact, to derive from books any thing beyond the bare statements contained in them, and their reading results in the accumulation of a mass of undigested facts.

On the other hand, there is a definiteness about the knowledge derived from books, which oral teaching taken alone can not give. And it is advisable too that the students should not leave the school without some practice in reading for themselves, so that they may be able, when away, to continue their own education with a chance of real improvement. The students therefore who have been in training for a year and half will now be required to attend fewer lectures, and to read more than hitherto. Their reading will be directed and their progress perpetually tested, but the lectures will be subordinate to the books.

The industrial training of the students has been conducted under the guidance of the gardener. I have generally joined in their labors, in order that this essential part of the system might not be undervalued. The vegetables for the use of the school have been grown, and we have besides broken up a considerable portion (five acres) of our ground (about thirty-five acres in all,) and made it fit for the operations of a larger number of students. We have a horse and an increasing stock of pigs, and we propose shortly to purchase a cow. The students have care of these animals and attend to them well.

There can be no question as to the beneficial effect of the manual labor; and even if the students were intended to take schools in which the children were not to be so employed, I should think it expedient to adopt the same system in their training.

The following regulations have been made for the maintenance of discipline:

GENERAL RULES.

The students are to rise when the gong sounds at six, and to be down to prayers at half-past six. The gong will sound a second time at twenty-five minutes past six. Students who are late for prayers will be sent to work all day in the field.

No student is to go into the bedrooms between half-past six in the morning and ten minutes before one.

No student is to leave the premises without permission.

No student is to go out of the house after dark.

No student is to go into the kitchen, housekeeper's room, or any part of the building northwards from these two rooms, for any purpose whatever.

Every student on coming in from work is to change his shoes before going up stairs.

Every student is required to be clean in his person.

Chapel.

The chapel hours on Sunday will be half-past eight, eleven, and half-past four unless otherwise specially ordered.

The students who have passed their first examination for certificates will read the lessons in turn. Two will read the morning lessons, and two the afternoon.

The readers are always to look over the lessons before the time of service, and are to endeavor to read simply and reverently.

The two readers are to sit in the seat at the bottom of the chapel, facing the Communion Table.

Bedrooms.

Two captains are appointed over each bedroom.

The duties of the captains are—

- To prevent all indecorous noise or disturbance in the bedrooms.
- To light the gas at the sound of the gong, at six in the morning, during winter.
- To open two windows in each bedroom before coming down to prayers in the morning.
- To put out the gas at the sound of the gong, at half-past ten in the evening.
- To keep lists of the students in their respective bedrooms, and mark against the name of each whether he was present at morning prayers. These lists to be given to the Principal or Vice-Principal, on Saturday evening, after prayers.
- To report to the Principal any thing in the bedrooms which appears to require attention, (broken windows, deficiency of water, &c.,)

Library and Lecture-rooms.

The library and lecture-rooms to be swept out every day immediately after dinner.

The students who are not captains are to do this in turn.

The captains are to see that this is done, and to be reponsible for it. If the Principal finds occasion to remark more than twice upon the state of any room, the captain who has charge of it will be sent to the field all day.

The library to be decently arranged again, and the books put away, at the sound of the supper gong.

No conversation allowed in the library, such as to interrupt those who are reading.

Hall.

The captains, in rotation, to be presidents of the lower tables in the hall. One of the captains and two of the other students to come to the upper table in rotation.

Two students to act as waiters at each table, and to remove the dishes, plates, &c., while the rest remain seated. All except the captains to take this duty in turn.

Essays and Analysis.

The weekly essays are to be collected by the captains, and placed in the Principal's study every Saturday morning immediately after breakfast.

All analysis, or abstracts, or other work done in the exercise books are to be collected by the captains immediately after tea, and brought to the Principal's study on the following days:

Mathematics and physics	on Tuesdays.
Divinity	on Wednesdays.
Geography and history	on Thursdays.
Grammar and literature	on Fridays.

Conclusion.

Every student is to make a copy of these rules.

The captains are charged with the duty of seeing that all these rules are observed, and are required to warn any student who disobeys them, and, if any persist after warning, to report to the Principal.

These rules, as will be obvious on perusal, were not made all at once, but as occasion arose. They will of course require many modifications, for the same reason, hereafter.

But our reliance for the maintenance of discipline has been, and must be, much more on perpetual watchfulness, and personal intercourse with our pupils, than on a fixed routine. It has been our object, by living with the students, sharing their meals, joining in their out-of-door employments and recreations, to place ourselves on such a footing with them as to render the open exercise of authority almost unnecessary. They are not subjected to any system of espionage. We do not profess to be always with them. They are left a good deal to themselves, and always treated with confidence. No opportunity is ever taken to watch them, without their own knowledge. But care is taken that no artificial barrier shall grow up between us and them, and that the great temptation to disorder shall be taken away by their being made to feel that they are governed well.

The practicing school has been in operation since Lady-day. The children come from the neighboring village. The numbers are at present twenty-four.

They come at nine and stay till one, being dismissed for about ten minutes at eleven. At a quarter past two they return, and are taken with the students to the field. The field-work leaves off at half-past four. They come back to school, in summer, at six and stay till seven.

The following is at present the order of lessons in the first class:

	9	Prayers.	
1st Lesson till	9½	St. Mark's Gospel.	
2d "	10	Writing.	
3d "	10½	Mental arithmetic.	
4th "	11	Dictation.	
Dismissed for ten minutes.			
5th Lesson till	11½	Reading.	
6th "	12	Slate arithmetic.	
7th "	12½	Geography.	
8th "	1	Object lesson.	
Evening.			
9th Lesson from 6 to	6½	Reading	On Mondays and Fridays.
10th "	7	Arithmetic	

On Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays, the evening hour is given by the whole school to singing.

On Mondays and Wednesdays the class goes into Mr. Tate's lecture-room, from twelve to one, where he gives them a lesson, or makes one of the students do so in his presence; in the latter case he overlooks the notes of the lesson before it is given, and criticises it after.

On Mondays from eleven to twelve, and on Fridays from ten to eleven, Mr. Tilleard has the class in the same way; and on Saturdays, from nine to ten, I take them myself.

The school is divided into three classes. The students being divided into three divisions; each division is charged with teaching one class. By this means there is a perpetual change of masters, no one having a class for more than two hours.

On Mondays, from eleven to one, I take the third class myself; on Wednesdays, at the same time, the second; on Fridays, the first.

Minute-books are kept of the lessons done every day. When I take the class, I test its progress for the week, and give directions for the lessons of the next week.

Two of the students in rotation take charge of the children in the field; joining in their work and superintending it.

It will be obvious that these arrangements are preliminary and provisional—not final. But so far we succed as I could wish. The children are fond of their masters, work very heartily and merrily in the field, never seem tired of the lessons, and like coming to school. The students enter into the plans with spirit, improve visibly in the art of giving lessons, and superintend the field-work with firmness and method.

It would be absurd to hope that so small a school would give them an opportunity of learning the art of teaching and educating in perfection. A large school is in many respects a more powerful machine than a small one, and exhibits features distinctly which are hardly noticed in the other.

Nor again can such a school place before the students a complete specimen of their own future labors. In many ways the school in a workhouse differs from all others, and the schoolmaster's duties differ accordingly.

The school can be intended to teach them only one part (though a very important part) of what they will have to do, and for that purpose I have no doubt of its fitness. *To make our system perfect, a pauper school of considerable size is indispensable.*

Contemporaneously with the opening of the practicing school I commenced a course of lectures on methods of teaching. These lectures will of course take particular notice of the peculiarities in those schools for which our student are intended; they are given twice a week.

I will conclude with two remarks. One refers to the great difficulty with which we have to contend in the exaggerated estimate, in the minds of all the students, of knowledge as compared with mental cultivation. The wide extent of subjects covered by the examination for *certificates of merit* has had, I think, a tendency to encourage this mistake.

The other point, to which I wish to draw attention, is the great advantage that would be gained if the examination, especially in all the literary part of it, were confined to definite text-books.

These considerations bear more peculiarly on the case of Kneller Hall than on that of any other training school. It must be the aim of every such school, but an aim peculiarly required in us, to train masters who shall be able not merely to teach, but to educate; masters who will discriminate between information and mental discipline. The workhouse children are liable to one temptation beyond all others—a servile dependence of mind, which makes them willing to remain in a degraded position. They are cowed by the sense of having no friends or protectors; they know not how to right themselves when they are wronged—how to support themselves when distressed. To give them mere knowledge, to make them good arithmeticians, or good grammarians, will not give them what they need. They may learn, perhaps with readiness, when skillfully taught, whatever information they may be required to learn. But even a very intelligent knowledge is compatible with slight appreciation of the uses of that knowledge. What they require is the contact of a cultivated mind, of a mind superior, not so much in knowledge as in the degree in which that knowledge has refined and strengthened the character. This, next to religious temper and moral principal, is what is needed in a workhouse schoolmaster, and whatever bears on this demands our attention.

REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS

ON

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BY HENRY BARNARD.

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Documents relating to the Public Schools of Rhode Island. 1848. 560 pages. Price $1.

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Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction,—commenced in 1845, and discontinued in 1849. 3 vols.—bound in sheep. Price $3.50.

Tribute to Gallaudet, with a History of Deaf Mute Instruction and Institutions in Europe and the United States, and particularly of the American Asylum at Hartford. 1852. 00 pages. Price $1.

School District, Town and Village Libraries: Hints for the Organization, and Management, and Selection of Books for Popular Libraries. 1854. 150 pages. Price $1.

Education in its relations to Health, Insanity, Labor, Pauperism, and Crime. 16 pages. Price $1 per dozen copies.

Hints on Reading. Being selections from various authors on the selection and right use of Books. 16 pages. Price $1 per dozen.

Practical Illustrations of the Principles of School Architecture. 176 pages, with 163 wood cuts. 1851. Price 50 cents.

School Architecture: or Contributions to the Improvement of School-houses in the United States. 1854. 416 pages, with 300 wood cuts. Price $2, cloth.

Normal Schools in the United States. 1852. 215 pages. Price 75 cents.

Normal Schools in Europe. 1851. 450 pages. Price $1.50.

Reports on Education and Schools in Connecticut. 1853. 462 pages. Price $1.

Public Education in Europe. 1854. 800 pages. Price $3.

School Architecture; or, Contributions to the Improvement of School-houses in the United States. By Henry Barnard, Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut. Fifth Edition. 1854.

This volume will be found on examination to contain: I. An exposition, from official documents, of common errors in the location, construction, and furniture of school-houses, as they have been almost universally built, even in States where the subject of education has received the most attention. II. The principles to be observed in structures of this kind. III. Plans of school-houses adapted to schools of every grade, from the Infant School to the Normal School, either recommended by experienced educators, or recently erected. IV. Illustrations of the best styles of seats and desks, and the best mode of warming and ventilation. V. Catalogue of apparatus suitable to each grade of schools. VI. Catalogue of books on education, and books of reference for school libraries. VII. Rules for the care and preservation of school-houses. VIII. Examples of dedicatory exercises. IX. Hints respecting the classification of schools.

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